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PUBLIC SPEAKING AND SOCIAL OBLIGATIONS*

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THE American psychologist William James once stated that the social value of the college-bred resides in his capacity to know a good man when he sees one. This statement implies that the function of education, in a large, unspecialized sense, is the production of finer social beings, beings who not only themselves possess Socratic virtue but who are quick to recognize it in others and to exalt it wherever found. The young men and women whom we guide through undergraduate days must bring to our society the influence of a sustaining, progressive social idealism which aims to bring social order out of social chaos, and co-operative effort out of suicidal greed and blind, infuriated individualism. Men must learn before it is too late that the road to individual security and self-realization does not lie over the bodies of those who are too weak or unwilling to resist the attack of the strong, but that it lies rather along happy firesides and hearts made gay by the human gesture of the outstretched hand to those in need and in despair. The young men and women in our colleges must undertake the leadership in this social renaissance, and it is for us, their tutors and their guides, to give them the capacity and the desire for such leadership.

Inspired by such social ideals as these, the president of our

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Association asked us to reconsider the whole speech curriculum in the light of our social needs, hoping to discover the social significance of speech work in our universities. Each member of the Association was accordingly asked to put to himself two questions: (1) What is the social significance of my particular phase of speech work? (2) What might it be under a speech program which seeks better adaptation to our social needs? I wish to discuss the character of the foundation course in public speaking under an integrated speech program which seeks better adaptation to our social needs. How is such a course to be taught? In discussing this matter I shall undertake to answer the two questions asked above.

But we must first ask two preliminary questions: What, ordinarily, is thought to be the value of public speaking? What are our social needs? Public speaking is ordinarily regarded as an instrument of power over others for the achievement of personal ends. The only argument which I have ever heard advanced in behalf of public speaking is that the capacity to speak in public is an economic asset which can always be liquidated in terms of dollars and cents. Everywhere you are reminded that in order to succeed you must be able to "put yourself across," to sell your goods, your personality, your schemes, your virtues, your vices, and in every bargain your soul. Therefore, take public speaking. Throw in a little applied psychology. Learn how to stand on your two feet and sell lots in the mid-Atlantic. Study your audience. Discover its infirmities and plow through. Be rugged. Be firm and unyielding. This is an age of competition. If you don't sell your community listerine tooth paste, someone else will sell it pepsodent. Learn public speaking and you have in your hands an instrument of power. It will eventually make you a soap factory executive. And the next step is a seat in Congress.

Such is the frequent conception of public speaking, and such the inducement for its study. Ask any of your students why he is taking public speaking. Ask any layman why he values speech training. The answer is the same: It will help me in my business. I do not mean to say, of course, that instructors of public speaking state the motives for the study of speech as bluntly as I have stated them nor that the student will acknowledge them with such rugged sincerity. On both sides there are the catchwords of babbitry. Speech training prepares one for leadership and for service to one's community. It prepares one for the duties of citizenship. But when these phrases of starched respectability are torn open, there

is frequently exposed a heart rotten with greed:—serve, the better to exploit; lead, the more effectively to conquer; be a good citizen in order to be the spoilmaster of a municipal administration.

If public speaking is to maintain its position on the college curriculum, it must refuse to serve such unsocial ends. It must cease to be an instrument for exploitation and become an instrument for social regeneration. It must no longer serve purely personal ends; it must devote itself to the realization of our social needs.

And this brings us to the second preliminary question, What are our social needs? We obviously cannot consider public speaking in relation to our social needs without first determining what the needs actually are. In attempting to answer this question I do not wish to be thought an ambitious diagnostician of social ills. If one were to ask this question of a number of people selected at random, one would receive an amazing variety of answers. Each would immediately define our social needs in terms of self-interest. And, indeed, our social needs, considered concretely, are many. In a society which seems for the moment devoid of stability and a sense of well defined direction, each is interested in the restoration of what is vaguely called prosperity. Each desires his own security. The citizens of this nation's Hoovervilles will tell you unhesitatingly that our social needs are comfortable homes and plenty of nourishing food. They assert this with a resounding unanimity. But their thinking does not go far beyond their stomachs, and to the question of how such comforts are to be secured, their aswer is neither clear nor unanimous. Those who think in terms of social organization insist that personal security must come through co-operative effort, that our social needs are not so much more food and more houses as a more equal distribution of what we actually have. And so we ask again what are our social needs?

I must ask this question in a very special sense if the answer is to be relevant to this discussion. I rephrase it thus: What is the social need to which public speaking can minister? What is the social need which we as teachers of speech must constantly recognize in planning our courses? I am not interested in immediate and transitory needs. What I wish to discover is a need more abiding and permanent and less likely to change than the needs of the immediate present. Such a need, I believe, is a passion for intellectual honesty and the life of reason. This social need was recognized by Socrates in his good-humored but devastating

charges against the Sophists more than two thousand years ago. It is recognized today by all genuine teachers. And it must continue to be recognized until prejudice and greed and blind passion are permanently dethroned. That is to say, it must continue to be recognized until it is no longer a social need. If we agree that this is a social need to which the teaching of speech ought to be adapted, how will it affect the teaching of public speaking? What principles must be kept constantly before the students in the classroom? There are, I believe, four which, when actively recognized, will affect profoundly the teaching of public speaking. First, the value of public speaking is intellectual and social rather than economic and personal; second, in a speech there must be the twin virtues of intellectual honesty and appeal to reason; third, the content of the speech must be held always to an inflexibly high standard; and fourth, demagoguery must be actively hated. Let us consider each of these in its relation to the teaching of public speaking.

First, the value of public speaking is intellectual and social rather than economic and personal. We must abandon the conventional habit of evaluating public speaking in terms of personal utility. Whatever personal gain accrues to the individual who possesses skill in addressing an audience must remain incidental to higher purposes. It must not be emphasized nor offered as an inducement for the study of speech. The purpose of public speaking in an integrated speech program adapted to social needs is the oral communication of the speaker's ideas. We speak in public, if we have a lofty and austere regard for the art, for the purpose of communicating to others the product of our own researches on matters of general importance. The process is an intellectual one, the attempt of one mind to make clear and persuasive to another mind an idea, expressed orally, and carrying with it all the fervor and vitality and enthusiasm of the particular mind which expresses it. The psychological prerequisite of such communication is a certain intensity of desire to communicate something which to the speaker seems worthy to be shared with other minds. There must be no thought of personal gain other than that which is incidental to any sort of creative effort, no satisfaction other than that which adequate self-expression yields to any human being.

The social value of such communication resides in the fact that it is communication with other minds, a sharing of the products of the intellect. There is no social value in demagoguery or in a piece of brilliant salesmanship, or in any speaking for personal gain.

because in such performance there is no true sharing. Something is withheld. One mind attempts to dupe another, to impose itself upon another for reasons which remain hidden. If public speaking is to remain worthy of a place in a college curriculum, it must become an agency for the co-operative sharing of ideas. It must recognize the identity and rights of other minds. For whatever they are worth, the speaker must share with other minds his own ideas, his joys and his sorrows, his hopes and his fears, his serenity and his anxiety in an always troubled world, for no other reason than to destroy the terrible isolation of one mind from another. In this attitude is the true social value of public speaking.

The second principle in the credo of the public speaking instructor is that in a speech there must always be intellectual honesty and the appeal to reason. An instructor under no circumstances should tolerate a speech in which the materials have been in any way distorted for the purpose of achieving an end, no matter how laudable. We must exact from our students the most rigid sort of intellectual honesty. Nothing must be said which is not thoroughly and honestly believed. Nothing must be omitted which is in any way material to an issue under discussion. To permit such dishonest practices in the hope that the result achieved may justify them is to induce a vicious habit.

Nor must we permit in a speech an appeal which is not to reason. I do not propose here to distinguish, in abstract, between an appeal to emotion and an appeal to reason. The distinction is a difficult one and not necessary to the matter with which I am now concerned. What I am urging is that a conclusion must stand or fall on its own logic and that the prejudices of an audience must not be exploited for the purpose of making that audience accept a conclusion the full implications of which it does not understand. The prejudices of an audience must be removed, a bias must be explained away by showing that they do not rest upon secure foundation. They must never be exploited. Public speaking is in disrepute because it is too often charlatanism. It thrives upon blind passion and the infirmities of human nature. Such public speaking is of no constructive social value. It is, indeed, a social degradation. It perpetuates a social madness which is everywhere an obstacle to the progress of ideas. It is the purpose of the speaker to make clear an idea to another mind. If that other mind finds reasoning difficult, so much greater the challenge to the speaker. If that other mind is not accustomed to following rational processes, so much

greater the opportunity of the speaker to bring to that mind a new experience. Under no circumstances must he seek success in the titillation of vanities and in the caressing of prejudices. Better occasionally to fail in a speech than to resort to such indignities. The only way to hasten the life of reason is gradually to awaken it by constant, unyielding appeal.

This appeal to reason is closely associated to the third principle, namely, that the content of the speech must be measured always by an inflexibly high standard. There is no social value in wasting time speaking about trivial things. The speaker must always remember that in any speech he must justify the attendance of an audience. They have assembled to hear him say something. He owes them something for their attention; and that debt can only be paid by what he has to say. There is no justification for a speech without intelligent content. It is mere waste of time. Consequently, it is the first duty of the instructor of speech to insist that every speech presented in the classroom be one which brings something worth while to the class. A student who is permitted to get through a public speaking course on trivia is not likely to change his habits when speaking under more realistic circumstances. So the instructor must insist that each time a student speaks he must know more about that subject than anyone else in the class. If he does not, he has failed to establish his right to speak and to the attention of the audience. For these reasons the instructor must never compromise on the content of the speech. He must always measure it by an unrelentingly high standard. Otherwise it will be devoid of social value.

The final principle in the teaching of speech for social rather than individual ends is that demagoguery must always be actively hated. I mean here exactly what I say. The student should be taught not only to avoid charlatanism and demagoguery in his own speaking, but also to combat it in others wherever found. The instructor must inspire in the student an active hatred for the oracular stupidities of the charlatan, a hatred so intense and so full-blooded that when the occasion presents itself the student will have the moral courage to rise on his feet and challenge them with the zeal and fervor known only to the heart of youth. I have often told my students that if ever I should find one of them in the practice of charlatanism I would rise and tongue-whip him into the dust. How could we more effectively adapt the teaching of public speaking to our social needs than through inspiring a few

clever students to shadow a politician in an election campaign and rend to shreds, one by one, each of the platitudes and pompous nullities which he mouths to his constituents! It is not impossible thus to inspire youth if we maintain the necessary dignity and austerity in our teaching methods. The least we can do is to make this our valedictory to our public speaking classes: Keep the charlatan at bay.

I trust that the discussion of these four principles has elucidated what I conceive to be the method for teaching public speaking in an integrated speech program which seeks better adaptation to social needs. The abiding social need to which public speaking can effectively minister, I repeat, is a passion for intellectual honesty and the life of reason. Or so, at least, it seems to me. And if we have a proper regard for these principles in our teaching, the courses in public speaking on a college curriculum will enjoy social sanction and unassailable security.

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF THE SPEAKER-AUDIENCE RELATIONSHIP

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THE report of the research committee of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking which appears in the first volume (1915) of the *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking* contains the following suggested research topic: "V. An experimental investigation to determine what processes are most valuable in the preparation and delivery of addresses in order to secure certain definite results in the audience." The present article is not the "experimental investigation," neither does it deal with "the preparation" of speeches. Believing that objective experimental evidence will more and more engage the attention of the profession, this paper attempts to give definite formulation to those essentials underlying the "processes" involved in the "delivery of addresses."

I

In general the factors which enter into the Speaker-Audience relationship, and which we have shown in slightly more detail in our schema, are covered in these questions:

(a) What does the stimulator (speaker) do?
(b) What elements serve to connect the stimulator and reactor?
(c) What does the reactor (audience) do?

In other words we are dealing with the setting up of a stimulus; the medium through which the stimulus passes and the background upon which it acts; and the ultimate reaction produced. As Woolbert delighted in pointing out, ". . . all Persuasion aims to secure from hearer or reader a response."[1]

The accompanying diagram is a rudimentary attempt to represent the basic constituents of the speaking situation.

The speaker is dependent each instant for the stimuli which he will emanate, and for his response to stimuli of either external or internal origin, upon his own physiological moment. In brief the physiological moment is the static totality, at any given instant, of a constantly changing body physiology. The stimuli which the speaker originates are in reality but his reactions to the sum total of the stimulations which are acting upon him. We illustrate our understanding of this viewpoint when we say "The speaker finally *warmed up* to his speech." Gray holds to such a thesis when he declares: "The speaker himself is affected by the use of his own activities. It is a generally accepted fact now that psychic phenomena are dependent upon physical phenomena, if not actually identical with them."[2]

The audient is dependent each instant for the stimuli which he will receive and for his response to stimuli of either external or internal origin and for the stimuli which he will in turn emanate, upon his own physiological moment. His responses serve as stimuli to the speaker; to other listeners; to himself. His responses are the sum total resultants of the stimulations which are acting upon him—in the light of past experience. This concept has previously found expression in writings in the field of speech. For example, ". . . all action is the result of stimulations . . . ."[3] Again,

[1]Woolbert, (4), 14. (Footnote references by name are to the articles, listed alphabetically by authors, in the "Bibliography" at the end.)
[2]Gray, 241.
[3]Woolbert (5), 107.

SPEAKER
AUDIENCE
Environment
Environment
Superior
Inferior
Judges & Critics
Decision—Response in Environment
Hearing
Sight
Touch
Pitch
Force
Quality
Time
Posture, Movement, Gesture, etc.
OTHER SENSES
Speaking
Audience
Experience
Words
Inductive appeals
anecdotes
reasoning
etc.
Common experience

". . . a proper descripiton of the action at any time would have to be made in terms of the whole organism, every act is of the whole machine."[4]

Let us now examine the reciprocal affinity between the two sides of our diagram with the intention of demonstrating that the existence of the speech situation is a result of the purposive utilization of all stimuli which will tend to synchronize the physiological moments of (or establish positive-phase relationships between) speaker and listener.

Whether by "conviction" or "persuasion," the aim of the stimulator is some reaction on the part of the audience. Relatively, the reaction may be immediate or postponed. It may be in part instantaneous and in part deferred. Baird illustrates the immediate reaction in his "Buy a tag" example.[5] These reactions may be objectively apparent, or they may be subjectively apparent; they may be non-apparent either to the stimulator or to the reactor.

James says: "All mental states (no matter what their character as regards utility may be) are followed by bodily activity of some sort. . . . They lead to inconspicuous changes in breathing, circulation, general muscular tension, and glandular or other visceral tension, even if they do not lead to conspicuous movements of the muscles of voluntary life. . . . all states of mind even mere thoughts and feelings are motor in their consequences."[6] The conspicuousness or inconspicuousness of the change is ". . . a difference, not between acting and thinking, but between one kind of action that happens also to be perceivable movement and another kind of action in which the movement is invisible and unperceivable."[7]

In addition to the possibilities of placing these reactions on an extensively spread out time scale, it is possible also to compare them from the standpoint of their success-values. Thus, from the view of the speaker, the actions of the listener may be positive or negative, helpful or harmful.

The living organism, the persuadee, reacts only upon stimulation. Varying stimuli produce divers reactions. Also, at different times identical stimuli produce, not identical, but different responses. What are the possible avenues, in or to the body, which are open to stimulation?

[4]Woolbert (2), 257.
[5]Baird, 8.
[6]James, 5.
[7]Woolbert (2), 258.

The speaker has two *principal direct* approaches to his objective: through *sight*, and through *hearing*.

The primal approach to a reactor—wholly so by radio or telephone—is via *sound* waves. We consider, almost to the exclusion of other factors, the human voice as the vehicle for utilizing sound waves. This does not mean, however, that we do not recognize, for example, the place of the organ in a religious gathering. The concepts of Pitch, Time, Force, and Quality are already well grounded in our professional writings. On these factors, like commodities on a barge, the speaker must superimpose "loaded words," anecdotes, examples, use of personal pronouns, variations in rate, and other techniques to a number and degree differing with every ancient or modern writer.

By limiting ourselves to a consideration of Speech Sound we introduce a time factor of great importance. Speech sounds being a moulding of expired air—they must necessarily be dependent for their duration on the period of expiration. Perhaps one of the explanations for the vivacity of the French is their lenis-sound packed language so conservative of breath that the speaker seems to be able to continue interminably. At present, although we are not prepared to offer experimental evidence to support it, the idea suggests itself that, granting a connection between sentence or phrase-thought length and expiration, all other things being equal a speaker will more easily win over listeners having respiratory rhythms similar to his own. We present such an hypothesis only as a preliminary statement of work already planned. Certainly we would claim no originality for an idea about which Cicero wrote that ". . . in all parts of language . . . a certain agreeableness and grace are attendant on utility, and, I may say, on necessity; for the stoppage of the breath, and the confined play of the lungs, introduced periods and the pointing of words. This invention gives such gratification, that, if unlimited powers of breath were granted to a person, yet we could not wish him to speak without stopping; for the invention of stops is pleasing to the ears of mankind, and not only tolerable, but easy, to the lungs."[8]

Light—the second great medium to be utilized in the stimulator-reactor relationship—involves another part of the vibratory spectrum. Transmitted or reflected light rays are of course utilized. In such a limited medium we make use of gesture, movement, and posture. Of its importance Cicero wrote: ". . . in our oratorical

[8] *De Oratore*, III, 46.

action, the countenance is next in power to the voice, and is influenced by the motion of the eyes. . . . For words move none but those who are associated in a participation of the same language; and sensible thoughts often escape the understandings of senseless men; but action, which by its own powers displays the movements of the soul, affects all mankind; for the minds of all men are excited by the same emotions, which they recognize in others, and indicate in themselves, by the same tokens."[9] We might, but probably we would not, wear our Indian costume or drape the flag over the speaker's rostrum, if our audience were not also a visience.

Dealing with gesture, Gray points out that ". . . response is not a purely psychic reaction . . . it involves primarily the physical organism; bodily changes do take place." ". . . the degree of appreciation depends on the degree of bodily participation in the reaction." "This participation in turn depends on the physical mechanism, and *its attunement* to that particular thing, and the emotion that it brings out." [Italics ours.] ". . . there is a tendency on the part of the hearers to imitate the actions of the speaker."[10]

Usually only in a minor way has the speaker-stimulator access to the reactor through the other external senses of *touch* (temperature and pressure), e. g., comfortable or uncomfortable chairs; *taste,* e. g., cigars or candy; *smell,* subtle perfumes or attention to ventilation.

Even less access is ordinarily possible to what Howell[11] calls internal senses *(pain; muscle, tendon, joint sense; equilibratory senses; hunger; thirst; sexual sense; fatigue;* and indefinite but demonstrable *visceral organ senses).*

That these are minor direct approaches should not in any way lead us to neglect them. Most of us know of executives who before starting in to secure a reaction hand out a good cigar to the prospective buyer. A "big" buyer may be wined and dined by an official hostess. Before telling us of the merits of ZQZ perfume the salesgirl first sprays some (not too much) on our coat. The desert "mine salter," after he lets us become lost for a day or so, gives us a drink of water before he permits us to beg him to sell us his mine.

In our literature much has been written about the External and

[9] *Ibid.,* III, 59.
[10] Gray, 239-240.
[11] *Physiology* (11th edition), 273.

Internal senses, but under the terms "intellect" and "emotions." The use of the words external and internal indicates at once that one is making an arbitrary division of the whole; intellect and emotion do not so readily show their monogenesis. There has been a pedestaling of "mind" as something referring to our higher, better selves; and a guttering of "emotions" as degrading, unmanlike, referring to our animal selves. It is essential to remember that responses of the body are of the whole organism. If we admit an appeal to the "mind" we still are forced to recognize that the body functions in such a way as to make improbable activity or response in an isolated "mind" sector. The same is true of an appeal to the "emotions." "Mind" and "emotions" are so interconnected and interdependent physiologically and neurologically that separation is out of the question. Blanton[12] early wrote that the pleasant emotions route themselves over the cranial, the unpleasant over the thoraco-lumbar divisions of the autonomic, thus closely allying themselves with digestion, heart-rate, blood pressure and internal secretions, and general body activities. Cannon[13] designates the thalamus as the sub-cortical center originating the discharges which add to sensation the emotional aura.

The indirect use of the minor senses may outweigh in importance the direct use. We refer to experience. Does the listener remember the smell of new-mown hay at daybreak? Can he recapture the fragrance of the lilac hedge past which he trudged when as a youngster he attended grade school? Recall to the memory of the hearer the chilling, penetrating, icy blasts of some past winter. Describe a choice porterhouse steak in such terms that the audience will actually make chewing movements. An enterprising fire insurance company anticipates the agent's visit by a letter so impregnated with chemicals that when it is removed from the envelope the recipient gets that smoky-wet-burned-wood smell typical of fire-ravaged buildings. Indirect use of minor sense-appeals has been practised by persuasive persons in all ages.

These ferries then, hearing, seeing, smelling, tasting, and the others listed above, we may use to carry our stimuli. Through them we gain responses from the organism.

What responses can we secure? There are only two: (a) muscular movements, and (b) glandular secretions. Psychic phenomena are apical manifestations of these responses. It seems

[12]Blanton, 154 ff.
[13]Cannon, 120.

apparent that only by objective measurement of these two reactions can one definitely evaluate the stimuli of a speaker.

II

Up to this place we have been satisfied to note the aim of the speaker; his methods of attaining that end; and, in brief, the forms which those ends will take. We wish now to investigate these steps more carefully and to do so in direct reference to the diagram.

We have used the jagged lines and arrows (the electrical symbol for a variable resistance) between the *stimulator* and *reactor* to represent the resistance which must be overcome in order to obtain the desired action. As in the electrical circuit, varying amounts of resistance will produce varying phenomena. For example, if we consider the sound-wave medium of transmission by which the speaker may stimulate the audience, we may assume that the stimulation of the words which the speaker produces will be in inverse proportion to the resistance they offer to the communication process.

If we continue our comparison of the schema with a diagram of an electrical circuit, the factor of electro-motive force (voltage) must also be considered. In other words the speaker may not only secure his ends by attempting to reduce resistance to a minimum, but when the resistance is strong he may use greater energy in forcing his stimulation on the audience. The particular point to remember in this case is that the amount of energy used must not be so great as to destroy the circuit, but must be increased only within the safety factor above the given resistance.

Outside the body of the hearer there are diurnal and climatic variations, as well as antagonistic influences, which oppose themselves to the stimuli emanated by the speaker. Within the body of the reactor the afferent, efferent, and interconnecting nerves, as well as the muscular and glandular tissues, constantly vary in their resistance to conduction. Although we often claim to be able to forecast the reaction of a given individual in a given situation, we can do so with no absolute assurance. All of us have heard the phrase "the worm has turned"; someone has failed to react as expected. Strictly speaking not only is it true that the human organism will not react in the same way to the same stimulus on different occasions, but it is impossible for such reactions to be identical. The best that can be said is that by chance there may

be a similarity of reactions, or that to the observer, the reaction appears to be similar.

The organism is being constantly bombarded with stimuli; most of these stimuli do not even get into "consciousness." The living organism reacts to each stimulus, or to each stimulus group. Each time stimulation and resultant reaction occurs the organism is changed. If we could know the condition of the body at any physiological moment, even then we could only hazard a guess as to its condition before or after that instant. But our guess would increase in accuracy in proportion to our knowledge of that momentary condition.

Gunnison[14] shows an awareness of these fluctuations of the individual and an understanding of the physiological moment because he writes, "All emotion, to be truthful, must be spontaneous. . ."

If we realize that not only does the individual constantly change, and thus increase or decrease the resistatnce which is offered to stimulation, but also that no two individuals in our audience are exactly alike or changing in exactly the same way as other individuals, something of the problem which faces the speaker becomes apparent. The best that the speaker can do--and the extent to which he does so will determine the success of his stimulation methods—is to offer stimuli in such a manner as to cause the audience to approach with him a common harmony of phase relationship. The problem may be likened to the cutting into a circuit of a number of generators. To secure a maximum energy effect, adjustments must be made until all of the dynamos are in phase.

The persuader, among other things, often uses repetition in trying to force his listeners into phase, to gain their attention which psychologists say is belief. So far as interest and attention are related, Allport's statement, "It is probable that interest can always be traced genetically to an autonomic foundation," is of importance. He continues: "The outworn pedagogical view that man is a creature controlled essentially by Reason divorced from the lower 'appetites' is rapidly being displaced by this deeper truth. Intelligence is the servant, not the master, of autonomic activities."[15] Interest, or the fluctuation of attention, one of the observable results of the constantly changing bodily condition, does not follow the same recurring cycle of changes for all members of the audience. It is doubtful if any two are in exact phase. The speaker tries to

[14]Gunnison, 149.
[15]Allport, 64.

stimulate the listener at the maximum point of the cycle of attention, and if he can alter the cycle for all individuals he can force the entire audience toward a more or less common relationship. We believe this is probably near his own regular cycle, but quite likely a compromise between that of listener and speaker. Bauer struck in the direction of this idea when he wrote, "We are prone to think of our orators moulding the thought of the multitude; we seldom think of the multitude moulding the thought of our orators."[16]

Our interest so far has limited us to the direct connections between the two sides of our chart. There are other parts to attract our attention.

Experience, if it were correctly scaled, would be diagrammed infinitely larger than we have shown it. Here, however, it is more inclusive than merely the experience of the speaker or of any individual audience member. We have represented the spheres of experience of the two parties involved, as being quite distinct and separate except at a point of overlapping. The area included in this overlapped portion may be called the *common experience* of both speaker and listener. Mainly on the basis of this common ground (wrongly used it becomes a buffer territory), and from it, must the speaker build out and tap the wider life of the reactor. This sector capturing process, by applying certain variations to sound waves, is pointed out by Woolbert:

> Persuasion must at all times maintain the objective attitude. The hearer it is who is to do the acting; therefore any appeal that induces him to react must be so constituted as to stir in him existent mechanisms for rendering that action."
>
> ". . . . experiences play their part in persuasion by coming into motor activity under the stimulus of words of proper denotation and connotation.[17]

Once within the territory of occupation, "The speaker must recreate past experiences in the minds of the audience."[18]

In fact the direct influence of the speaker, unless opposed by a balancing in that part of the circuit labelled Experience, should secure belief, for "All propositions, whether attributive or existential, are believed through the very fact of being conceived. . . ."[19]

Put in another way, in reference to words, "A concrete word is one that is rapidly suggestive; one that is clearly and sharply

[16]Bauer, 225.
[17]Woolbert, (3), 26.
[18]Crocker, 284.
[19]James, 290.

definitive of feeling or object. Or, as Spencer would say, it is a word that does not compel the hearer to choose from his stock of images one or more by which he may figure to himself the genus mentioned." (The necessity of choosing introduces resistance into the circuit.)[20]

The concentric circles which represent the subject of the speech enable us to indicate to what extent the subject matter falls within the experience of the speaker or of the audience.

Our treatment of the *environment* follows somewhat that of our dealing with experience. The environment is not encompassed by any individual. Furthermore, the platform occupancy of a speaker places him in a part of the total gross environment slightly different from that occupied by the audience members. In the private speech situation individuals facing each other in a Pullman coach occupy sectors of the common environment differing by movement, passage of scenery, and distribution of passengers.

To build up a common environment, in the speaking situation, many techniques are employed. Routine activities, as reading or singing in unison and rising and sitting together, are familiar methods of attempting to synchronize the physiological moments of the audience members. The individual, under the stimulus of the speaker, reacts and is thereby stimulated to "think" that others are reacting as he is reacting. This results in concerted action.

In the field of social psychology this cumulative process has received Allport's attention. "In the social sphere the environment not only stimulates the individual, but is stimulated by him. Other persons not only cause us to react; they also react in turn to stimulations produced by us."[21] "As we catch a glimpse of the expressions of others we 'read into them' the setting which for the time is dominating us. We ourselves accept and respond to the words of the leader; and therefore we believe and act upon the assumption that others are doing so too."[22] Note his summary: "The relation of audience and speaker is in itself a complex phenomenon. The individuals respond to the direct stimulations of the spoken sounds. Meanwhile the overt components of their responses are serving as contributory stimuli to one another, enhancing the effect of the speaker's words. Finally there is a circular facilitation of response between the speaker and the listeners. The 'amens'

[20]Lindsley, 84.
[21]Allport, footnote, p. 4.
[22]*Ibid.* 306.

and 'hallelujahs' of the congregation stir the revivalist to still more eloquent discourse, thereby increasing again the volume of religious emotion. The cries of the audience provoke ever fiercer denunciations from the revolutionary orator."[23]

Finally in our diagram we have shown a *superior gradient* and an *inferior gradient*. As the reader looks at the plane surface upon which one is forced to draw, he should imagine that he is looking down on an animal trap. The gradient lines represent the trap jaws, which are capable of movement upward from the paper surface. In their individual progress upwards one or the other may be in advance, that is superior, or they may be equal. Only as long as the speaker dominates the audience is our diagram correct. If at any time the audience takes "the bit in its teeth" we can imagine either a reversal of the gradients or a change in the places of stimulator and reactor. For readers who are electrically minded the gradients may be thought of as the connections between the poles of a battery. The electron stream has definite direction and continues as long as there is a difference in the pole potentials. Ordinarily we assume that the speaker is in control of the speaking situation and that the major flow of stimuli is from him to the audience; the minor stimulus currents, or in a sense the return flow, are from persuadee to persuader.

Although we deprecate the introduction of a secondary meaning of the term "circular responses" we must note that Lyon, following Allport, seems to have roughly pictured the co-stimulus nature of the speech situation, for he writes, "As something is carried back to the speaker from his audience he in turn must respond in this give-and-take procedure; and the responsibility for regulating and controlling circular responses must rest with the speaker."[24]

Referring again to the diagram, and remembering that although it is impossible so to represent it, there is a straight line relationship from speaker to audience through *experience* and *environment*, we may gather together our comments. We have been trying to point out that when, and if, the stimulator can bring the rhythm of the successive physiological moments of the reactor into cogged-harmony with the rhythm of his own successive physiological moments by increasing the common bond of experience, by bringing the subject into the mutual experience area (or invading his own territory),

[23] *Ibid.* 303.
[24] Lyon, 381.

by constricting the environment, by the advantageous, *purposive*, and unifying utilization of stimuli to all the possible sense organs, by the judicious control of the superior gradient to bring the reactions of the individual audience-members into syntony, then the persuadee must think, act, live, or be as the persuader.

Conclusion

At the outset we said that our purpose in this paper was to discuss the objective bases of the speech situation. We have noted that the essential processes deal with purposive stimulation, through the interconnecting media, of the *External Senses* (Sight, Hearing, Touch, Taste, Smell) and of the *Internal Senses*. They deal also with the responses to stimulation. In an order almost the same as the order of their importance to the speaker is the arrangement of these avenues of stimulation and the resulting responses in their accessibility to the investigator. Already these avenues are the subject of investigation by the psychologist, the physiologist, the physicist, and the neurologist. Members of our profession take as many of the findings of these other fields as they can intelligently apply to our field yet, paradoxically enough, pretend to undervalue such experimentation when it is done by speech teachers. We believe the time has come for greater professional courage. In the spirit of the editorial "Outsiders Looking In"[25] we see the day already at hand when scientifically trained persons working co-operatively in the speech field shall stand in their own right and give us objective approaches, based on the fundamentals of the speaker-audience relationship, to an ever expanding sphere of speech. Indeed, it is not inconceivable that workers in our field may even contribute to those storehouses from which we have in the past drawn sustenance.

[We wish to acknowledge the personal interest of Dr. Henry Lee Ewbank, in whose class some years ago this paper had its inception, and the helpful advice of Dr. Andrew Thomas Weaver in the preparation of this article.]

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THE STATUS QUO IN DEBATE*

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THE present survey of national conditions in intercollegiate debate was conducted with a three-fold aim: first, the determination of present practices with regard to conditions of contests, styles of debate, and decisions; secondly, the uncovering of new trends; thirdly, the gathering of significant opinion as to the value of the different objectives and practices. A questionnaire[1] covering these items was prepared and mailed in January, 1933, to 250[2] colleges and universities in all parts of the United States. Replies were received from 109 institutions distributed over thirty-six states and the District of Columbia. Two colleges reported "no debate." The 107 institutions sponsoring the activity were classified, for tabulation, on the basis of geographical location, the number falling in each section being as follows: East, 25; Southeast and South-Central, 12; Mid-West, 36; Northwest, 17; Southwest, 11; Pacific, 6. The states represented in each district are: East: Connecticut, District of Columbia, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, West Virginia; Southeast and South-Central: Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Virginia; Mid-West: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin; Northwest: Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Wyoming; Southwest: Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Texas; Pacific: California, Oregon, Washington. No replies were received from Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Maryland, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, or Vermont.

General Data

Two general items were included in the questionnaire, one as to the textbook used in class, the other as to hours allowed on an

*Based on a national questionnaire survey conducted for the Committee on Intercollegiate Debate of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

[1]Reprints of the questionnaire, which had been published in *The Gavel* for November, 1932, were secured at a minimum cost through the courtesy of H. A. White, Editor.

[2]The number of questionnaires sent out was necessarily limited, since the Committee on Intercollegiate Debate receives no financial support in conducting its projects.

instructor's schedule for coaching debate. Data on the latter have not been submitted because of evidence of misinterpretation. Seventy-one replies were received to the textbook query, distributed as follows: Foster, 25; Baird, 14; O'Neill and McBurney, 8; Baker and Huntington, 6. No other text was reported more than twice. A number of institutions reported assigning readings in a number of texts. One institution reported using "a mimeographed text of our own."

Statistical Data on Present Practices

The tables of results submitted are, for the most part, self-explanatory. The comments which follow will be limited to pointing out significant details and giving computations not contained therein.

Conditions of Contests.—In summating the results regarding contest conditions, we find that annually in these 107 institutions, 2,512 men and women take part in intramural debate and 2,028 in intercollegiate debate, and that 2,996 contests are held before a total audience of 233,397,[3] not including radio listeners. Hence, while the right of debate to exist may be questioned, or the precise form it at present takes, the fact that debate audiences in these 107 colleges and universities annually total almost a quarter of a million[4] seems

[3]The figure for the total audience was secured by (1) computing the average number of debates per school falling under campus and extension; (2) multiplying the number of debates of each of these types by the average audience for the type; (3) multiplying these figures—total attendance per type per school—by the number of institutions reporting each particular type; (4) summating the results. Figures for radio audiences have not been submitted because of the author's inability to secure any reliable estimates as to the number of listeners per intercollegiate radio debate per written response. Dr. Tracy F. Tyler, Research Director of the National Committee on Education by Radio, states that his organization has made no investigation in this field. In any case, however, an estimate must of necessity have been based on a comparatively small number of instances, only twenty-six institutions indicating that they received written responses, though sixty-four reported some amount of radio debating.

[4]It should perhaps be said that the results of the present investigation are probably not exactly indicative of what we would find true of a more inclusive survey, since the enrollment of the institutions represented averages 2410, whereas the enrollment of the entire *World Almanac* list from which they were taken averages but 1470. That totals as to people receiving debate training, contests held, and audiences in attendance, for all institutions of higher learning in the country, would reach figures several times those for the present group seems to be clearly indicated, however, when we remember that we have no data on (1) 452 colleges and universities of the type included in our present investigation (average enrollment of the entire group of 561 is 1470); 137 teachers'

to leave little ground for doubting the *ability* of the activity to maintain itself.

An interesting speculation may be made as to the probable effect on public opinion were the utterances of all debaters controlled by some central authority.

Though one institution reported 200 taking part in intramural debate as compared with 22 in intercollegiate debate, and another 160 as compared with 30, on the average only three more men and two more women participated in such contests than debated other institutions. Such a condition may either indicate a question as to the value of intramural debate or simply point to the failure of teachers to make use of an opportunity.

The extremes reported for participation in intercollegiate debate by men (56–6) and the number of contests held (115–3), further provoke thought as to the objectives and methods followed in extra-curricular speech. Comment made in this connection by certain instructors will later be quoted.

The question as to whether or not audiences prefer analysis to entertainment in extension debates, submitted in an effort to determine how seriously off-campus audiences regard discussions by undergraduates, resulted in a two to one vote for analysis.

Though seven per cent of all debates were reported as held over the radio, only twenty-six institutions out of sixty-four reporting such contests indicated receiving written replies. This condition seems to show a rather lackadaisical attitude toward whether or not radio debates are delivered to an audience. It is also interesting to note that the author was unable to secure any information as to the probable number of listeners per written response to a broadcast debate.

Styles of Debate.—The holding of an open forum is a popular practice, almost one-third of all debates being held under this system, and the vote in its favor being nearly five to one. Split-team debating, on the other hand, seems to be held in but slight favor, only two per cent of all debates being held under this scheme, and the vote falling heavily against it.

colleges (average enrollment of 720); 69 state normal schools (average enrollment of 390); 248 junior colleges (average enrollment of 180). The figures for number of institutions and enrollments were secured (a) for colleges and universities, from computations made using the data available in the *World Almanac*; (b) for teachers' colleges, state normal schools, and junior colleges, directly from U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin (1930).

TABLE I: CONDITIONS OF CONTESTS

(In this and the following tables the results are in terms of average number, average per cent, or summation. Each item indicates the character of its data. Small figures in parentheses under other figures indicate number of replies.)

Item	Section								
	1 East	2 South-east South-cent.	3 Mid-west	4 North-west	5 South-west	6 Pacific	7 Grand Averages & Totals	8 Grand High	9 Grand Low
1. Average number enrolled	3075 (25)	1428 (12)	2527 (36)	1629 (17)	2467 (11)	3004 (6)	2410 (107)	30,000	225
2. Avg. number men in intram. contests	14 (23)	15 (11)	18 (36)	19 (17)	15 (11)	29 (6)	17 (104)	125	0
3. Avg. number women in intram. contests	8 (17)	3 (10)	10 (33)	10 (17)	4 (11)	14 (5)	8 (93)	80	0
4. Avg. number men in intercol. contests	16 (24)	13 (11)	14 (36)	12 (17)	11 (11)	14 (6)	14 (105)	56	6
5. Avg. number women in intercol. contests	7 (17)	3 (10)	8 (33)	6 (17)	5 (11)	7 (5)	6 (93)	20	0
6. Avg. number intercol. contests held	21 (25)	17 (12)	29 (36)	27 (17)	30 (11)	62 (6)	28 (107)	115	3
7. Avg. per cent campus debates	64 (25)	67 (11)	47 (35)	56 (17)	71 (11)	79 (6)	59 (105)	100	0
8. Avg. number in campus audience	102 (25)	70 (10)	95 (35)	61 (17)	42 (11)	47 (6)	80 (104)	300	5
9. Avg. per cent extension debates	26 (25)	19 (10)	47 (35)	40 (17)	25 (11)	20 (6)	34 (104)	99	0
10. Avg. number in extens. audience	191 (17)	210 (5)	127 (27)	103 (14)	96 (4)	96 (4)	140 (71)	500	30
11. Extension aud. prefer analysis or entertainment?	anal=7 ent =7	anal=4 ent =3	anal=18 ent =8	anal=12 ent =1	anal=3 ent =2	anal=4 ent =0	anal=48 ent =21		
12. Avg. per cent radio debates	10 (25)	14 (10)	6 (35)	4 (17)	4 (11)	1 (6)	7 (104)	100	0
13. Avg. no. written responses per radio deb.	14 (11)	6 (1)	93 (8)	11 (4)	17 (1)	85 (1)	40[a] (26)	350[b]	0

[a]Although sixty-four institutions reported radio debating, only twenty-six indicated receiving written replies.

[b]The highest average written response received was 350. One institution reported receiving as high as 600 responses to a single radio debate.

TABLE II: STYLES OF DEBATE

Item	Section								
	1 East	2 South-east and South-cent.	3 Mid-west	4 North-west	5 South-west	6 Pacific	7 Grand Averages & Totals	8 Grand High	9 Grand Low
1. Avg. per cent open forum held	42 (24)	15 (11)	29 (36)	28 (17)	23 (11)	16 (6)	29 (105)	100	0
2. Open forum worth while?	yes=21 no = 3	yes=7 no =4	yes=28 no = 3	yes=12 no = 3	yes=9 no =1	yes=2 no =3	yes=79 no =17		
3. Avg. per cent split-team debates held	2 (23)	5 (10)	1 (36)	5 (13)	1 (11)	1 (6)	2 (99)	25	0
4. Split-team debates—aud. interest as high?	yes= 3 no =13	yes=3 no =5	yes= 5 no =12	yes=6 no =6	yes=1 no =4	yes=0 no =2	yes=18 no =42		
5. Split-team debates debaters as highly motivated?	yes= 4 no =14	yes=3 no =5	yes=7 no =9	yes=5 no =7	yes=1 no =4	yes=0 no =3	yes=20 no =42		
6. Split-team debates—promote superior ethical code?	yes=4 no =9	yes=4 no =1	yes=5 no =7	yes=4 no =7	yes=1 no =3	yes=0 no =3	yes=18 no =30		
7. Avg. per cent Orthodox held	82 (24)	84 (11)	83 (33)	88 (17)	77 (11)	91 (6)	83[a] (102)	100	0
8. Avg. per cent single long speech variant held	6 (24)	3 (11)	4 (33)	1 (17)	8 (11)	1 (6)	4 (102)	90	0
9. Avg. per cent Oregon held	12 (24)	13 (11)	13 (33)	8 (17)	15 (11)	8 (6)	12 (102)	100	0
10. Prefer Orthodox	15	8	19	8	6	4	60		
11. Prefer single long speech variant	2	1	1	0	2	0	6		
12. Prefer Oregon	4	1	6	5	2	1	19		

[a] The percentages assigned the three major debate systems—Orthodox, single long speech variant, and Oregon—do not add up perfectly to 100 in all instances because the Northwest assigned two per cent of its debates to the Congressional Plan and one per cent to the Direct Clash Plan.

TABLE III: DECISIONS

	Item	Section								
		1 East	2 South-east and South-cent.	3 Mid-west	4 North-west	5 South-west	6 Pacific	7 Grand Averages & Totals	8 Grand High	9 Grand Low
Percentage of Use	1. Critic judge	9 (18)	23 (10)	30 (27)	22 (16)	13 (9)	33 (5)	21 (85)	100	0
	2. Three judges	40 (18)	36 (10)	6 (27)	21 (16)	23 (9)	27 (5)	22 (85)	100	0
	3. Sway-of-opinion audience vote	3 (18)	8 (10)	9 (27)	2 (16)	9 (9)	3 (5)	7 (85)	75	0
	4. Merits-of-debating aud. vote	1 (18)	7 (10)	4 (27)	2 (16)	1 (9)	1 (5)	3 (85)	50	0
	5. Single conviction audience vote	1 (18)	1 (10)	1 (27)	0 (16)	0 (9)	1 (5)	1 (85)	10	0
	6. No decision	46 (18)	25 (10)	50 (27)	53 (16)	54 (9)	35 (5)	46 (85)	100	0
Vote as to Preference	7. Critic judge	3	3	13	7	4	3	33		
	8. Three judges	7	3	2	1	2	3	18		
	9. Sway-of-opinion audience vote	1	2	3	1	1	0	8		
	10. Merits-of-debating audience vote	0	0	1	1	0	0	2		
	11. Single conviction audience vote	2	0	0	0	0	0	2		
	12. No decision	8	2	8	4	3	0	25		
Vote as to Deciding Criterion	13. Promotes thorough preparation	4	1	9	0	0	0	14		
	14. Greatest aud. interest	1	0	1	2	0	0	4		
	15. Most convenient	1	0	1	2	1	0	5		
	16. Promotes interest in truth	2	1	4	4	1	0	12		
	17. Training in life situation	2	0	2	0	1	0	5		
	18. Selects superior team	3	3	3	4	0	3	16		

As to the three major speech set-ups, though in percentage of use the Orthodox, with 82, leads by wide margins both the Oregon, with 12, and the single long speech variant, with 6, it is significant that in the vote as to preference this margin was less marked, especially with regard to the Oregon. A number of institutions reported inability to use the Oregon plan because of scheduling difficulties.[5] Many institutions have never tried any method except the Orthodox.

Three per cent of the debates of the Northwest were reported as held under other systems, two per cent under the Congressional and one per cent under the Direct Clash.

Decisions.—Perhaps the most interesting fact revealed regarding decisions is that the judge decision (critic or three) and no-decision practically divide the field evenly between them in percentage of use, with no-decision having a three point advantage. The popularity of no-decision debates is not, however, in all cases a matter of choice, as is indicated by the popularity vote, wherein the judge decisions gained heavily at its expense. A number of schools reported that they preferred judge decisions but were unable to afford them.

The critic judge, though used slightly less than three judges, outranks the latter decision by a wide margin in actual popularity, according to the vote.

A sharp difference as to preference for the critic judge or three judges is apparent between the East and Mid-west, the respective percentages assigned each being 9–40 in the former and 30–6 in the latter.

As to the basic criterion for decision preference, "selects superior team most accurately" ranked first in popularity with sixteen votes, eight from those preferring a critic judge and an equal number from those preferring three judges; "promotes thorough preparation" was second, with fourteen votes, eight from critic judge advocates, five from those favoring three judges, and one from a proponent of no decision; third, with twelve votes, came "promotes interest in truth as opposed to interest in winning," drawing eleven supporters

[5]In this connection it is interesting to note that the Eastern Intercollegiate Debate League has this year adopted the Oregon plan as its official system of debate. The members of this organization are Amherst, Bates, Brown, Mount Holyoke, Lafayette, Pennsylvania, Smith, Wellesley, Wesleyan, Williams, and Yale.

from those believing in no decision and one from an individual favoring a merits-of-debating audience vote. The remaining criteria received distinctly less support, rather evenly distributed as to source. Determining the winning team is apparently still a very real problem in debating.

New Developments in Debate and Discussion[6]

Two recent developments in debate deserving of mention are a new speech set-up, termed the Direct Clash Plan, originated by Professor Edwin H. Paget of North Carolina State College (described in detail in the November, 1932, QUARTERLY), and a decided increase in tournament debating. The Direct Clash plan represents an attempt to provide a system whereby, through compelling both teams to focus upon one issue at a time, whether main or subordinate, a genuine conflict on vital points may be assured. Whether or not the scheme is as effective as the Oregon Plan in achieving this objective only those who have tried out both methods can say. Again, it may be questioned whether the advantages of the scheme are not counter-balanced by the loss in training in speech composition peculiar to the other systems.

The increase in tournament debating, as manifested in questionnaire replies, may undoubtedly be ascribed, at least in part, to the depression, since a number of institutions gave a desire to hold their usual number of debates on less money as a reason for favoring it. Whatever the cause, however, the movement is worthy of the attention of those interested in debate. While some members of the association will hail more tournament debating as an undoubted gain, others will not be quite so sure. Witness Professor Williamson's remarks in his article in the April, 1933, QUARTERLY, anent his experience at the national tournament of a certain forensic society.

The most significant trend in the extra-curricular speech field, however, is probably that toward a liberalized intercollegiate speech program. This trend is manifest in a number of different forms, varying from a simple modification of debate, through the lecture-forum, group discussion, and symposium, to the debaters' convention.

Professor Quimby, of Bates College, submits a scheme whereby

[6]In this section it has seemed desirable to refer to material appearing in the QUARTERLY, as well as to questionnaire results. Acknowledgement has been made in every case.

three debaters from the home squad present a question before clubs: the "leader" analyzes the question, then the other two speakers present opposed solutions, after which the "leader" closes the session with a brief restatement of the opposing points of view, thus leaving the audience "with a clear-cut conception of the issues involved which they must settle for themselves as good citizens."

Professor Higgins of Miami writes of a lecture-forum scheme which he says his department rather expects to substitute for intercollegiate debate. Under this plan "the student must be capable of presenting in a twenty- or thirty-minute talk the general background of the subject and definite points of view from which that background may be studied." Following his talk he is expected to conduct a round-table audience discussion. The staff of the college department in which falls the subject matter of each speech select the speaker from among their students and direct the preparation of the talk from the standpoint of securing material and the points of view from which the subject matter is to be considered. The task of the speech staff is to assist the student "in organizing the material into competent speech form and in the polishing of speech mannerisms."

Group discussion, as carried on at the University of Wisconsin, may briefly be explained as a scheme whereby five speakers deliver five-minute speeches on the various subdivisions of the main question, each speaker leading the discussion (with the audience participating) which follows the presentation of his topic.

Professor Williamson's "Intercollegiate Forum," as presented in the QUARTERLY for April, 1933, is essentially a "symposium," providing for the presentation of three solutions to a problem instead of two, and emphasizing the need for a scholarly attitude of remaining "open to conviction."

The debaters' convention, as developed by the New York State Debate Conference, and presented by Professor Dickens of Syracuse in the February, 1934, QUARTERLY, is distinctive in that it provides training in at least three different fields—debate, discussion, and parliamentary law.

As to just *why* the introduction of these new forms is desired, there does not appear to be complete agreement. It has been claimed in some quarters that debate "belongs to a social order which is dying out if it is not already dead," and that it is inherently uninteresting, unpersuasive, and intellectually dishonest. But little concrete evidence has been forthcoming to substantiate these charges,

and so far as opinion is concerned, one can match every individual who believes them to be true with one who denies them. Professor Sandford, of the University of Illinois, writing in the June, 1933, QUARTERLY, states that available evidence proves to him "not that debate is inherently evil, but that we who believe in it as a form of training need to 'watch our step' and the steps of our debaters." Professor Murphy of the University of Pittsburgh, writing[7] in much the same vein, says that any movement aiming to "convert forensics into a science of patient, unprejudiced inquiry" seems strange to him. He concludes that our realm is "attack and defense," quoting Aristotle: "Rhetoric is the counterpart of Dialectic; for both have to do with such things as fall, in a way, within the realm of common knowledge, things that do not belong to any one science. Accordingly, everybody to some extent makes use of both Dialectic and Rhetoric; for all make some attempt to sift or support theses, and to defend or attack persons." Professor O'Neill, of Michigan, expressed somewhat the same opinion to the author in conversation at the December convention, saying, in substance, that he felt the sifting of issues had already taken place during the debaters' preparation, and that debate, as such, represented a logical climax to such a period of preparation.

Nevertheless, there does seem to be considerable justification for the desire to introduce forms approximating group discussion into our program. For an intercollegiate speech program containing only debate as at present conducted clearly fails to emphasize adequately, first, a highly important stage that everyone should go through before adopting a definite position on a controversial subject—that of submitting his own solution for critical evaluation by competent authorities—and secondly, the possibility of arriving at co-operative solutions. Whether or not these objectives, which are of undoubted value, may only be achieved by the introduction of new forms is the question before us.

MISCELLANEOUS COMMENT[8]

Two significant questions were raised in comment received: (1) What is the function of extra-curricular debate in the college and

[7]Personal correspondence.

[8]Quoted material in this section is taken from personal correspondence by permission of the individuals concerned. The author is fully aware that mere quotation is always accompanied by the danger of misrepresentation. He therefore welcomes any emendation as to point of view any individual quoted may desire to make.

university of today? (2) What is the function of the speech instructor in charge of extra-curricular debate?

In taking up the first problem, let us note the points of view of several coaches. Professor Reager, of Rutgers University, reports using fifty-six men annually in thirty-eight debates. In response to a query as to why he believed in such an extensive program, he replied: "I believe a speech department should exist for the benefit of the many rather than the few. Debate being a part of that work means to me the need for affording as much opportunity for as many men as condition of the budget will allow." Professor Shaw, of Knox College, on the other hand, reports an annual program of limited extent, consisting of participation by six men and six women in a total of six debates. Explaining his position, he says: "Regardless of expense, however, as a determining factor in the matter, I think I should not have scheduled more debates or employed more debaters, for various reasons, such as the following: (1) The college was small, and could not provide more than six men and six women of first-rate caliber to represent it each year; (2) It would have been utterly impossible for me to coach thoroughly more than two sets of teams on two questions each year, and carry a full-time teaching schedule besides."

The two preceding situations undoubtedly are influenced to a certain extent by local conditions. Nevertheless, a fundamental difference in point of view seems to be apparent when we compare Professor Reager's belief in limiting participation only by the budget with Professor Shaw's standards of a high caliber of individual representing the college, and a limited amount of time required of the coach.

If the two theories are viewed in general, it seems that an extensive extra-curricular debate program would mean practice in speaking before audiences for a large number of individuals, many of them of rather ordinary ability, at a heavy cost in time spent by the coach. Such a program seems to demand of the coach not direction alone but actual instruction in fundamentals as well. Those who believe in this program must see in extra-curricular debate a training not adequately given the average student in the classroom.

But the teacher believing in a more limited program will have none of this. He feels that the average student receives quite all the attention he merits in the classroom—that in extra-curricular debate we owe to our college and our audiences exemplification only

of the highest skills in speaking, and that, furthermore, it is quite unfair to a coach to ask him to handle an extensive extra-curricular program in addition to his regular teaching load.

Turning to the related problem of the coach, we find an interesting situation prevailing at Swarthmore. Professor Hunt, adviser in forensics at that institution, states that his activities are confined to the selection of teams in conference with the manager and professors of the departments in whose fields the question lies, and consultation with the manager on matters of general policy. The debaters are selected from the "honors" seminars in political science and economics. Professor Hunt is far from dogmatic with regard to his method, merely stating that it works well for him. In fact, he referred the author to Professor McKean of Princeton for a quite different expression of opinion. Says Professor McKean: "We found that when the students were allowed to prepare their debates for themselves, they were not well prepared." And again, "Professor Hunt's policy of having the debaters consult with professors in the departments in whose fields their question lies has not been a total success here. I have used this system on occasion when we have had to debate some very technical question; but I find that the professors want to direct the boys into a whole course of study; they are unable to pick out the main arguments."

One question raised here, it would seem, is to what extent the debate coach should rely on other departments for training with respect to selection of material and points of view. A second problem is the extent to which an instructor may well go in refraining from directing his debaters.

The final question as to the function of the coach relates to the importance of his *coaching* duties as compared with his *teaching* duties. An additional reason given by Professor Shaw for the limited extent of his debate program was as follows: "I was more interested in building up my work as a classroom teacher with some hundreds of students to instruct than I was in making a reputation for myself as a coach in an outside activity." He adds: "I think this last reason should be given deep consideration by all debate instructors. There is no adequate reward or promotion awaiting a mere coach. His tenure of office is likely to be short, and rests upon the caprice of gambler's luck. The classroom teacher, however, may retain his employment, like other college professors, to a ripe old age, and receive every academic award and distinction—provided he has not compromised himself too much by indulging

in gratuitous coaching." In this same connection, Professor Hunt states that he thinks the "tendency toward academic specialization is so inevitable that it is not safe for a young teacher to trust his future to coaching debate. If it is highly co-ordinated with his general equipment as a specialist in speech I suppose he may maintain himself, but I think he would be wise to subordinate the contest element and to place his trust for subject-matter in the co-operation of colleagues in other departments."

According to Professor Shaw and Professor Hunt, then, debate coaching scarcely leads to advancement. Yet many of us are aware of situations where an instructor is expected to conduct, in addition to a full teaching load, and without additional remuneration, an extensive debate program. If the aforementioned gentlemen are correct in their conclusions, colleges and universities are scarcely justified in requiring such a sacrifice of time which might well be devoted to advanced study or research.

Recommendations

In the light of the preceding data and comment, if any fact stands out it is that of *diversity* of objective and method. And while such diversity may at times be the result of differing local requirements, the author is inclined to believe that it more often represents mere aimlessness. Many of us go about our extra-curricular speech work simply as a result of habit, and with little questioning as to objectives, forms, and methods. From this point of view, a valuable recommendation seems to be that those interested in extra-curricular speech in the college and university should give at least a certain amount of their attention to two major problems:

1. Determination of the place of intramural speech in the college and university, with an evaluation of objectives and forms.

2. Determination of the place of intercollegiate speech in the college and university, with an evaluation of objectives and forms.

SOME PROBLEMS OF REBUTTAL; AN APPRAISAL*

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THERE is no need to define rebuttal in the presence of this group, for the concept is clear. To us it means largely the problem of directing those under our guidance into effective habits relative to refuting the opposition's arguments and to re-establishing their own arguments. The nature of our problems and some of the probable solutions may be suggested best, perhaps, through a consideration of some specific factors involved in effective rebuttal, theoretically and practically. To comprehend the theories of rebuttal and to realize successful application of these theories may be two separate and distinct things, though we doubtless agree that they can and should be combined.

A vital point to be raised is: Are there certain principles, instrumentalities and techniques, which we can hope to teach our debaters, which they in turn can put to work, develop; and, through practice, come to employ skillfully and effectively in the debating contest? The following ideas have been selected for consideration in answer to this question: (1) functions of rebuttal; (2) selection of arguments to be refuted; (3) methods of refutation; (4) composition and style of rebuttal points; (5) special forms of rebuttal points; and (6) common faults in rebuttal. These are not presented in any exhaustive manner, but from the viewpoint of one who hopes to emphasize certain topics which have become challenging problems.

What are some of the functions of rebuttal? Consider these: (1) to refute the arguments of the opposition, which if left unchallenged would aid them materially in the establishment of their viewpoint; (2) to defend and re-establish one's own arguments, which have been effectively attacked by the opposition; (3) to emphasize and clarify one's own arguments; (4) to open effectively the rebuttal stage of the debate; (5) to close effectively the case for each side; (6) to anticipate arguments of the opponents before they advance them.

It seems essential to develop clear concepts in the minds of de-

*Presented at the 1933 convention of the Illinois Association of Teachers of Speech.

baters relative to these functions of the rebuttal part of debating. It doubtless is necessary to do more than enumerate these functions by name to beginning people; good examples of each may well be studied. Then each candidate should be encouraged to develop rebuttal examples to fulfill these functions. Once the concept is grasped clearly, *directed practice* to promote realization of these specific functions should bear fruit. It is true that the building of the concept may proceed hand-in-hand with practice, but "rebuttal-function-consciousness," it seems, is essential to most effective achievement in actual debate. A few experienced debaters on the squad, who command an understanding of the functions of rebuttal, can give helpful demonstration to beginners.

In the second place, the selection of arguments to be rebutted is of importance. It would be untenable to maintain that every argument advanced by the opposition can be refuted, for at least three reasons: (1) it would be humanly impossible within the time limits; (2) there are prabobly unanswerable arguments on both sides of a question; and (3) it is unnecessary, for many arguments are minor in character or relatively unimportant logically or otherwise.

It is tenable to maintain that important logical and psychological points which are answerable at all should be rebutted. This applies whether it is a point in the opposition's constructive case or an onslaught by the opponent into one's own point of view by rebuttal or special adaptation. At least two things become important here: (1) how to determine and select the points requiring rebuttal; and (2) when to proceed with their rebuttal. It is possible to make fairly clear in the debater's mind that careful attention to the opposing case, noting opponent's statement of issues, his subpoints and the repetition and emphasis given to arguments will give a pretty good basis for selecting important logical arguments. Moreover, psychological points can be discovered by watching audience reaction to points and the manner of presentation by the opponent. It is important always to note the case analysis of the opposing speakers, for if strained or unusual, it may be effectively attacked.

Psychological factors in the debate situation make it important that these selected points be attacked as soon as possible. The more significant and psychologically vivid a point becomes, the sooner it is answered the better in order to stem the tide in the audience's reaction. Moreover, it denotes keenness and alertness, as well as strength. Therefore, each speaker may be encouraged to give attention to important ideas of the debater immediately preceding him. It

is sometimes good psychologically to *re-echo* his closing words, if climactic and magnetic, then proceed to refute his idea.

It becomes important to differentiate in the various instrumentalities with which to refute; further, it is more important to make them usable. It is obvious that a comprehension of evidence and reasoning, and especially their tests—is indeed valuable, but a special pointing up of these tests to the rebuttal viewpoint seems essential.

For evidence, tests of accuracy, adequacy, recency, relevance, source, and conflict become useful as a means of rebutting. In the case of reasoning, tests of causal relation, proper distribution of terms, proper selection of premises, sufficient and suitable instances, account of exceptions and so on are in order.

It is to be noted that the tendency of the beginning debater is to go forth to debate full-armed with the terminology used in denoting these various tests, but poorly prepared to apply them clearly and effectively. One of my debaters clearly comprehended the meaning of *post hoc ergo propter hoc* and proceeded to rebut by saying: "The gentleman committed a *post hoc* in his argument concerning the existence of crime and prohibition." A more desirable application, because clearer, would be to state: "My opponent has simply assumed that because of prohibition we had a crime wave, whereas, other possible causes, such as war, also operated at that time."

In considering the style and composition of rebuttal points, one is thinking of such things as introduction, conclusion, clarity, brevity, imagery and climactic arrangement of ideas. Considering each rebuttal point as a miniature speech, the matter of introduction is to be considered. In order to direct the point purposively, a terse, fair and clear statement of the adverse argument or statement to be refutted is necessary. Variety in reference to the opponent and his statements is desirable. Following this set-up should come a concise and climactic presentation of evidence or reasoning—or tests of evidence or reasoning—thus embodying the exception being made. Whether a conclusion is desirable depends on whether it is needed to clinch the rebuttal effect. The shock point (illustrated herein later on) seldom, if ever, requires a stated conclusion. When a conclusion is essential for effect let it be pointedly made.

Brevity is necessary for at least three good reasons: (2) definite time limits and numerous arguments to be refuted; (2) hearers cannot follow lengthy and involved arguments; (3) brevity shows a command of the subject, an ability to select in view of the need of the moment. It suggests the avoidance of involved and circuitous

statements. Let clear thinking guide the oral pronouncement of ideas which are to point. Say it, then stop.

Clarity involves the selection of proper terms; avoidance of technical terms, unless explained; coherence, that is, proper co-ordinating and subordinating of ideas; and clear arrangement of ideas within the statement.

Are there certain forms of rebuttal points which may be made concrete and usable to our debaters? No reference is intended to the so-called special refutative devices such as *reductio ad absurdum*, the dilemma, the method of residues, and others. Facility in the use of these is desirable it is true—but, in the main course of rebuttal aren't there certain forms to which points can be reduced for effectiveness? Debaters readily grasp and put to work the following ones.

1. The extremely short point, termed the "shock point" by Professor W. P. Sandford, has a definite psychological value. Moreover, its use indicates definite motion forward, provides variety and encourages climactic quality. It is Professor Sandford who provides an excellent example of this point. In a debate on the St. Lawrence Canal, says he, the negative rebutted in this manner: "We accept the definition and description of the proposed canal given by the affirmative. But the speakers omitted one point—this canal would be frozen, closed to navigation five months in the year." Did the negative take out five-twelfths of the affirmative case? I'll leave that to you.

Another example of the shock point is found in a debate given last year on the taxation question. The affirmative came to the support of the income tax for the states of the West in this manner. "The last speaker has stated that the income tax is not adapted to the states of the West, but the statute books of a number of these states—Montana, Oklahoma, and North Dakota, for example—reveal that they already have the income tax."

2. The "follow-through" or "follow-up" point is a restatement and sometimes an amplification of a point formerly advanced by the opposition. Following through with a point relative to the earlier point is to recall attention to it, and to strengthen it in the listeners' minds. Here is an example taken from a recent debate on the "New Deal" powers of the President. "The affirmative have omitted any reference to the President's use of the licensing power under the NIRA and the AAA; but recall, as we have earlier shown, that here is a Mussolini-like force potential enough to make the President an absolute dictator over all industry and agriculture."

3. The "opening attack" or "survey" point, if used at all, is utilized by the first negative or first affirmative speaker in rebuttal; though it may be used by the third negative speaker in his pre-speech rebuttal. It deals with the case as a whole, attempting to give a perspective of the entire case relative to the reasoning utilized, the evidence used and the pivotal issues and arguments employed. The entire analysis of the case may be attacked. It may be pointed out that there was an absence of certain kinds of evidence, or that the sources of evidence specifically considered indicate unauthoritativeness or prejudice. Further, there may be a lack of clarity in the opposition's stand and argument which may be indicated. If the opponents have failed to answer certain questions fairly placed before them, it can be shown that sufficient answers are important and should have been made. It may be that the granting of certain points by the opposition has decidedly prejudiced their stand. These and other modes of clearing away the "forest" so that the "trees" become more readily discernible become important objectives in this survey of the opposing case.

4. The "summary and closing plea" belongs rather uniquely to the last speaker of each team, who is closing the debate for the viewpoint upheld by himself and colleagues. Here envisage the need for a final putting in order of the two cases with each speaker trying effectively to discount the case of the opponent, while, at the same time pointing to vantage points within his own. Two methods may be noted, (1) the presentation of a series of contrasts dealing with the various issues and arguments; (2) a summary of each case presented in broad contrast to the other. There may be a mixture of the two methods put to use. In the case of the former, the speaker will deal with the opponent's stand on an issue or argument briefly; then in contrast, state the position of his own side on the matter. In the latter, he will summarize the opposition's case briefly, indicating weaknesses and shortcomings, then re-establish his own arguments and issues in terse climactic summary. In either case, conclusions pertaining to favorable consideration of the speaker's own side are in order with a final motivated appeal for acceptance by the listeners.

Finally, may I give a brief list of common faults often appearing in rebuttal? Each one may have his own particular list of such faults; if so, how many of the following are contained therein?

Attempting to answer a point by mere assertion or denial, failing to submit evidence or reasoning in support; attempting to rebut by talking about something else; misquoting or misinterpreting a point;

failure to answer important logical and psychological points; mere reiteration of evidence used in constructive speeches, instead of introducing fresh evidence on the point; merely declaring the existence of inconsistencies in opposing cases; accusing the opposition of proving nothing and of using no evidence, when obviously it has done so; failure to make good adaptation of previously prepared material; failure to view the opposing case in its more important aspects; use of involved points; reading of points to very great extent; failure to make clear the point being rebutted, merely sending in material; lack of coherence, merely bobbing about; failure to sense the ultimate issue of the debate; failure in teamwork; great use of trite terms; unethical practices as introducing new argument, unfairness and taking undue advantage; heavy ranting; mere petty contentiousness; and addressing remarks to the judge instructing him on how to decide the contest.

In the appraisal of these problems of rebuttal, the intention has been to re-emphasize certain principles and practices conducive to effective results. Almost anyone can be expected to use perseverance in the preparation of good constructive cases. Rebuttal preparation, however, is too frequently the victim of slight in debate preparation and training. Is it not apropos to recall that many debates are lost or won on the quality of rebuttal performance?

SPEECH EDUCATION TOMORROW*

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WHAT I have to say will be advanced under three main heads: (1) the functions of speech, and some conditions that should prevail in speech education as a result of these functions; (2) the need for a scientific checking up on the results of speech training; and (3) some relations between knowledge and artistry in speech.

I

We may say that speech has two functions, one of them original, basic, generic; the other derivative, adaptive, and personal.

*Presented at the 1932 Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH in Los Angeles.

Taking them up in reverse order: the traditional function of speech, the communication of ideas and attitudes and the expression of one's emotions, has been enjoined upon us for many centuries. We accept it, qualifiedly, as a personal function, adaptive and derivative in nature. A man sees a new 1933 Buick, or a beautiful sunset, and he tries to create those images in the mind[1] of a friend or acquaintance in whose company he finds himself; he argues with the friend that the inter-allied war debts should or should not be cancelled; he evinces his indignation at the frenzied and futile or dangerous programs advocated by some of his fellow citizens in their mad desire for a return of prosperity. He has no purpose beyond delivering himself of these ideas, attitudes, and emotions, in order to utilize this period of social intercourse in a standardized and conventional manner.

The qualification we had in mind when we accepted the statement of the function, was the fact that ideas are not literally communicated. Many a teacher in the classroom has talked to his students about their responsibility for "conveying" their ideas to their auditors; "put the idea into their minds; transfer it from your mind to theirs," he says, as he taps his forehead with a finger dramatically. (And in our professional terminology we probably have a vestige of this same concept in the term *delivery*.) But when this teacher comes to *feelings* he stops in confusion, for no one, so far as I know, has ever voiced the opinion that *emotions* are *transferred* from one person to another. So, as long as we are figurative in our use of the term *communication*, recognizing, with Dr. Ernest C. Moore[2] that "ideas are always home-grown," and that the idea the speaker arouses in his companion is never the same idea he has in his own mind, but one more or less like it, textured and colored —in fact, made possible only—by that companion's past experience, just so long are we free to retain the term in our vocabulary. In fact, it might be better if we substituted for it the terminology employed by Dr. Weaver, and spoke of *stirring up*[3] ideas and feelings in others, rather than of communicating them.

Peering back along the family tree of causes and effects and

[1] And when we say *mind* we do not mean to localize the area to the brain, but we mean to include one's entire nervous system, his muscular system, etc.—his physiological equipment for *awareness*.

[2] Dr. Ernest C. Moore, Director of the University of California at Los Angeles, has been wont to emphasize this point in his education lectures.

[3] Cf. O'Neill and Weaver, *The Elements of Speech* (1926), 9.

analyzing our findings more critically, we see a striking characteristic, this time basic and fundamental, attendant on the phenomenon of speech: that of social adaptation and control. Much of the speaking that one does is for the purpose of controlling or influencing the conduct of others—both overt conduct and the actions of the mind. Much of the speaking in the home, the school, the church, the shop and factory, in business and the professions, is designed to influence opinions, attitudes, feelings, and outward conduct—either to secure an immediate specific result or to condition future chains of conduct toward desired habitual responses. This dominance we find contributing to our economic rewards, to our social standing, and to our own personal standards of happiness and success. Man mastered his environment and thereby reversed the practice of the lower animals, who have down to the present day never been able to cease the process of adapting themselves to their environment, if they would survive. And the standards of his enlightened civilization have given him criteria for conduct which support and feed this dominance *motif:* individual competition in childhood and adult games, pastimes, and recreations; the competitive amassing of possessions; comparative acclaim for conventionalized traits of character; a standard of conduct toward weaker members of society, couched in the shibboleth of being "his brother's keeper"; fame for enterprise and achievement, either against or in the absence of adversity—regardless of the criterion, transcendence is the measure which is applied to determine the extent of the conquest.

And if there be a conqueror, there must also be a conquered. One who has failed in his grasp for the scepter of dominance, must needs bow to the will of the other—must adapt himself to the rôle of submission in his further relations with a master, until such time as another contest may be staged and the relationship decided anew. If the will of the dominant one packs the other, protesting, off to bed; requires a mastery of subject-matter on a warm, inviting afternoon in May; enforces attendance at church services when a show is preferred; refuses a request for a raise in salary because the petitioner can be replaced at the present salary and he hasn't a bid from a competing employer at a higher figure—under such circumstances the one who is being dominated changes his adaptive coloring to suit, either yielding to the force of his environment, or removing himself to other surroundings. Since the beginning of time it has been so: the strong have survived, the weak have perished.

And now may we take up another phase of this basic social function of speech, that function which, it appears, mothered the origin of speech and has nurtured its development down to the present day. I refer to the group function, collective in its nature whereas its counter-agent of social control and adaptation was personal and individual.

In the collective sense, speech is the great co-ordinator of group activities, such co-ordination made possible by a stable group life. Speech, we are told by Dr. Grace Andrus de Laguna, is "the great medium through which co-operation is brought about. It is the means by which diverse activities are correlated with each other for the attainment of common and reciprocal ends."[4] ". . . While it is the individual who speaks, speech itself is as much a part of the organized life of society as is buying or selling or bearing arms."[5] Analyzing a step further, she advances the promise that "to co-ordinate the intelligent behavior involved in the use of tools, language is necessary. Language is correlative to the tool. It is scarcely possible that either could have developed very far without the other"[6] and she illustrates by noting the relationship between language and development in stone chipping. "It is scarcely credible," she remarks, "that the art of chipping stone implements could have been developed by men who had not yet learned to talk."[7]

Her next step is to notice the structure of language in its rôle of essential function: ". . . . The characteristic structure of language has evolved from the animal cry in order to meet the needs of expanding group life," she says; and "the three fundamental forms of speech-response—or of language structure—[are] the declaration, the command, and the question,"[8] while "the characteristic structure of language is the structure of the proclamation"[9] or declaration. It is true, Mrs. de Laguna concludes, "that language, at least in its highly evolved forms, does serve to communicate ideas and thoughts. But to assume that this is its original and fundamental function is hopelessly to intellectualize it, and to

[4]Grace Andrus de Laguna, *Speech: Its Function and Development* (New Haven, 1927), 19.
[5]*Ibid.*, ix.
[6]*Ibid.*, 49
[7]*Ibid.*, 218.
[8]*Ibid.*, 37.
[9]*Ibid.*, 76.

divorce it, as something merely external, from the essential business of living."[10]

This concept of the three-fold function of speech suggests to us the basic place which that activity holds in the life of the race. And if this be true, then speech education is basic in any adequate system of education. That fact must be at the root of any discussion of the nature of speech education for future years. It must exert major influence in shaping our principles and our practices, our talismans and our techniques.

It is the duty of education to fit each member of society for his greatest individual degree of usefulness and influence. That speech education may shoulder its portion of this responsibility, the triumvirate of functions outlined above must be applied to secure certain utilitarian, artistic, and social results. May we enumerate some of them:

1. As a corollary to the foregoing, first should be written in letters such that he who runs may read, the basic place which speech education should occupy in any system of general education of children, adolescents, and adults. The copybooks of educational principle and procedure should steadily repeat it, demonstrate it, illustrate it, until practice actually assigns this basic position.

2. Speech activity is a socializing process, and major attention should be paid to the social phases of speech education, as well as to the utilitarian and the artistic. In the past and at the present time, the last two consume most of our time and effort. About the closest we come now to an application to social needs is the attention to personality adjustment and development, pleasant voices, bodily participation in speech, articulation, and diction which we are able to work into a course or two in high school and a very few in college. But when the social factor is fully recognized speech education will start with the small child, will save him from pitfalls into which many now stumble, and will develop in him, as he grows to manhood, a skilful participation, by way of the speech avenue, in the life of organized society.

3. In the preceding paragraph incidental mention was made of the fact that speech education should start in the lower grades. But it now becomes advisable to make that point the focus of our attention. Long before the child is old enough to start to school his articulation and pronunciation should be watched and needed

[10] *Ibid.*, 9-10.

improvements made; as an elementary-grade pupil vocal defects should be guarded against and the effectiveness of bodily participation in speech increased by exercises cultivating grace, animation, muscular relaxation and tonicity, and total bodily activity; as an intermediate-grade pupil his diction needs attention and pleasing voice quality needs cultivation; and all along the line, both before and after this point, the breathing and physical development should be watched, speech defects corrected, and personality guided, whether psychic, neural, or muscular. Communicative reading from the printed page; distinct, clear, forceful, and beautiful utterance of his own ideas and feelings; and the artistic interpretation of children's plays, pantomimes, and pageants are desirable projects for the elementary-school pupil.

4. The course of training begun in the elementary school should be continued, with adaptations to the age and mentality of the pupils, through the high school, the college, and the graduate school. In the first-named little besides the development of skills should be attempted; in the college, the emphasis should be on skills, but an appreciable body of organized knowledge should be offered; while in the graduate school the emphasis should be reversed, without ignoring the skills.

5. If speech education is basic to the needs and activities of the race, then it is not only for the few, but for all people. No one goes to school now without receiving instruction in mathematics, in written composition and literature, in history, in other subjects which, it is thought, help to prepare one for maximum usefulness as a member of society. Every child is required to go to school, he is required to take these courses. In college he may sometimes substitute one or another branch of science for the mathematics, and another social science for the history, but the rule holds firmly: a minimum amount of instruction in these broad divisions is required of every pupil or student. A similar condition should hold for speech: it should be a required subject in elementary school, high school, and college.

6. It is the experience of every teacher that many pupils are lost in the maze of this giant castle of education into which they have been led; their surroundings appear to them unco-ordinated, and they look with the eyes of confusion and bewilderment upon the world. For them it will be a happy boon that speech training may become a much-needed orientation course which helps to fit the jig-saw pieces of their world together in a sane and rational manner.

7. The hall of learning, as regards speech, comprises three main chambers: (1) the speech laboratory, where the phenomena of speech are subjected to scientific inquiry by the trained investigator, and valid deductions drawn; (2) the speech clinic, where defects of speech and where pathologic conditions are alleviated or remedied by trained clinicians, thus restoring to the unfortunate sufferers a part, at least, of their lost world; and (3) the conservatory, where lives are enriched by cultivation in the arts of speech. The practices employed in the second and third realms are based upon and result from applications of the principles discovered in the first domain. Instruction in the speech arts must much more fully lay hold upon the rich mines of truth to be discovered by the laboratory worker; and time, the great re-organizer of customs and practices, will duly bring this condition to pass.

8. It must be recognized that he who can bestow the master's touch in the conservatory is not, by that token, endowed with the mind of Agassiz; that the gift of teaching and the gift of scientific inquiry and the gift of practical application of scientific principles in clinical practice are three distinctly separate sets of talents, only one of which is usually found to pulse with the creative breath of life in any one man. Nevertheless, the scientific investigator should regularly do some teaching and make some clinical applications of the materials with which he works, in order that his professional life may be full and complete; the clinical practitioner, familiar with the techniques and processes of the laboratory, should maintain a normal perspective to normal man by doing some teaching in the speech arts regularly; and the teacher, by study and practice in the other two fields, should cultivate an enlarged vision and a sympathetic attitude toward them.

9. All pupils in the elementary school and the high school should have access to a clinician trained in the diagnosis and therapy of disorders of speech, including functional and organic speech defects, and the various phases of psychological personality re-education. The initiative of several large and medium-sized cities, such as New York, Los Angeles, and San Francisco, on the one hand, and of Grand Rapids, Michigan, and Dayton, Ohio, on the other, should become the rule of village, hamlet, and rural district. With two per cent of our public-school children suffering acutely from one form or another of speech disorder, and with a difficulty likely to manifest itself at any age, this proposal becomes, not a chimerical dream, but a prayer for succor from the future citizens of the

nation. The Supervisor of Speech Improvement would have the limits of his territory determined by the school population of any district, town, or county; sometimes confining his work to one school, sometimes to a city, and sometimes to an entire county, as in certain counties in California. With present rapid means of conveyance, the county has been found not too large a unit for effective work of this nature.

Also, one of the necessities of the future is an emphasis on the preventive side of speech correction. Up to the present time, attention has been devoted almost wholly to the remedial side. But as preventive medicine has begun to revolutionize physical health, so the speech clinician by preventive measures will radically enlarge the usefulness and happiness of the race. When the Supervisor of Speech Improvement is found regularly in the schools, this significant preventive aspect can begin to operate effectively.

10. In any widespread instruction, and especially in work which demands so great a degree of individual attention as does speech, co-ordinative and administrative agencies are needed for the best results. The state of California occupies a novel position by virtue of the Bureau of Speech Defects and Disorders which it maintains as a part of the California State Department of Education. The speech correction work in all parts of California is under the direction of the State Chief of this Bureau. What is needed in each commonwealth is a State Supervisor of Speech, responsible, in an advisory capacity, for the conduct of the speech teaching and clinical practice in the public schools of the state.

11. In order to establish uniform standards of accomplishment in speech instruction and to maintain them under the most favorable conditions, a state course of study in speech—one for the elementary school and one for the high school—should also be published by the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction as a part of the state course of study. It should be drawn up by the State Supervisor of Speech, if there is one; otherwise, by other *competent speech teachers* only.

II

Our next consideration is of criteria, standards, and tests by which to measure the effectiveness of the speech of the students and their grasp of the principles involved. We are told that a criterion is employed only in matters of judgment, as of facts, principles, or comparisons, and implies not so much the idea of

conforming to as of meeting a test; while a standard is a definite or concrete measure to which everything of the same kind must conform. A man's speech as a whole, it is said, is a criterion by which we may judge his background and his education; the grammatical construction of his language and the distinctness of his articulation are among the standards by which we measure the effectiveness of his speech.

There are standards of speech today, it is true, but they are quite largely the standards of individual teachers of speech, rather than of any large group. Who wishes any more forcible demonstration of this fact than the radical divergence of opinion expressed whenever the members of a speech convention begin to discuss the content or the objectives of the basic course in speech? Viewed *en masse,* our standards appear in a chaotic state of disorganization and confusion. Let me ask you: what should be the content of the basic course in speech? There is no uniformity, with the gamut ranging all the way from the course in which the students are on the floor once—never more than twice—in the semester and the work consists of a rhetorical analysis of printed speeches and essays, to the course which comprises an approach to an understanding of the function of language, action, and voice in the speech situation, and a skillful training of these agencies to function with maximum effectiveness in the daily contacts of the students. What should be the method of the basic course? Should it be extemporaneous, impromptu, *memoriter,* read, or mixed? Should it be by way of original speaking, parliamentary law and business session, informal group discussion, argumentation and debate, interpretative reading, pantomime and acting in simple scenes, or an admixture of some or all of these methods? The yawning chasm of diversity is as wide as in the first instance. Is content a responsibility of the speech teacher, or is it not? Hostile camps are still pitched on either side the blood-red Martian course. And these are but three concrete examples from the many that leap nimbly to your minds.

Some dear soul is coming valiantly to the rescue, with the rejoinder: "But this is *speech* work, don't you know; and you can't trammel a teacher of speech. He must be as free and unfettered as the air of heaven. Individuality in the teaching of speech is absolutely paramount to its highest success."

On the surface, a deceitfully beautiful philosophy for vague, nebulous souls. But the shade of Woodrow Wilson should be here this morning to utter another of his admonitory *tut, tuts.* Over-

looking entirely the faulty analogy—the wind, of course, absolutely does not blow "where it listeth," but follows eternally the laws governing the circulation of air all up and down these mundane continents and the seven seas—ignoring this fact completely, may we ask a couple of questions? Does the engineer, unspoiled by any of the world's fund of cumulative experience in the building of bridges save only his own, blandly say, "Go to; I shall build me now a bridge," and out of his dream of construction grows a beautiful, serviceable, and durable bridge, staunchly meeting the exacting tests of time? Or does he first glean all the lore the world has to offer on the building of bridges, and to it then add his own creative talents? Does a music master, when a new pupil comes to sit at his feet, turn his back on all that the past and the contemporary present have to say about the principles of teaching music and of developing musical skill, and does he say, "Being now free of all precepts which would tend to cramp my style, behold, I shall create for you here a model of virtuosic art." Or does this master of music rather incline his ear to the doctrines of his profession in present and past ages, and upon that firm foundation build a house which, when the rain descends, and the floods come, and the winds blow, and beat upon that house, it falls not, because it was founded upon the rock? Even so also should the teacher of speech build.

The cause of the present confusion in speech standards is not far to seek: scientific speech education is an infant in arms, too young, yet, to have achieved order out of chaos. The research worker, in the words of Dean Immel, "has hardy had time to adapt his apparatus and to establish his methodology. But his day is about here," and "what scientific research has already done and is doing in the fields of medicine and industry, it will soon be doing in speech education."[11]

Among the criteria, standards, and tests which the schools of tomorrow will apply to the teaching and practice of speech, the following should have ample space:

12. In the first place, as has just been said, experience affirms a need of a reasonable degree of standardization in objectives, criteria, content, methods and techniques employed in the teaching of speech. A scientific checking up of the results of speech training is needed

[11] Ray K. Immel, "Scientific Research and Speech Education", in W. Arthur Cable, *A Program of Speech Education in a Democracy* (ed. by W. Arthur Cable, Boston, 1932), 118-119.

all along the line, and at periodic intervals in the training. The day of the empiricist in speech education is gone, irrevocably sunk in the shades of oblivion, and the sun of the new day of scientific analysis and synthesis is coursing up the heavens. Known causes and effects, exactness and accuracy in all respects, analytical diagnosis, and synthetic treatment will soon characterize speech training.

13. The primary purpose of the criteria, standards, and tests which will be set up should be to measure the effectiveness of the speech training, the degree and quality of the skills being developed in the students, not to test the degree to which the students can temporarily absorb facts and hand them back to us in oral recitation and written examination. The object should be to test the skill with which they can apply principles in actual speech situations, and achieve concrete results. And the function of standards and tests, be it said, is not to serve as an aid in assigning a scholastic grade, but to aid in determining the elements of strength and weakness in the student by means of the best type of diagnosis.

14. Speech work must be pupil-centered, rather than subject-centered. Many teachers, it appears, have been trying to adapt the students to the course rather than the course to the students. Some of these teachers apparently are absorbed in teaching *courses* rather than men and women, boys and girls.

15. Standard minimum essentials of speech skill should be established for all students in the schools, and those who are deficient should be required to take training until the deficiencies have been removed. Minimum essentials of speech skill should be set up for all students in normal schools and teachers' colleges, regardless of the subjects that any one student expects to teach. All should be subjected to the speech tests for the good teacher, and specific training outlined for those who show deficiencies. The tests should emphasize articulation, voice, diction, and bodily participation in speech situations, and should canvass all phases of the speaking personality.

16. Better trained teachers of speech will be found in the schools and colleges of tomorrow, when the speech laboratory has given us a wider and richer range of data upon which to base conclusions, and when standardization of content and method have worked their leavening effect. But it is essential that that training include a thorough mastery of the fundamentals of speech skill and relevant informational content. The following phases should be included in the outline of requirements:

A. Principles of the effective speaking voice.
B. Principles of effective bodily participation in speech.
C. Principles of the effective use of oral language.
   (1) Phonetic values.
      a. Speech sound formation and standards (articulation and enunciation).
      b. Pronunciation: usages and standards.
   (2) Grammar.
   (3) Oral style (diction, phraseology, vocabulary, artistic merit, individuality, strength, economy).
D. Skill in the use of body, voice, and language in the three main speech forms: private and public speaking, private and public reading, and acting.
E. Familiarity with the knowledge content and the literature of certain subject divisions of speech, as follows:
   (1) Specialization in at least two of the three main subject-divisions centering around the skills (original speaking, oral interpretation, and dramatics).
   (2) Specialization in the pedagogy of speech.
   (3) A minimum training in the psychology of speech.
   (4) A minimum training in phonetics.
   (5) A minimum training in voice science (vocal anatomy, vocal physiology, and acoustics).
   (6) An appreciation of the scope and function of:
      a. Para-vocal physiology (the anatomy and physiology of the skeletal, muscular, nervous, visceral, and glandular systems).
      b. The physics of sound, light, and color.
      c. Speech correction:
         1st. The diagnosis of speech defects and disorders.
         2nd. The correction of functional defects.
         3rd. Dental, head, and thoracic therapy and surgery (the correction of organic defects).
         4th. Psychological re-education, mental therapy (psychiatrics or psychotherapy).

This work should be correlated closely with training, first, in psychology; second, in education; and third, in English; and by supporting minor subjects determined by the phases of speech work in which specialization is pursued.[12]

17. In the speech training of tomorrow, serviceability must be a major gauge. Utility and artistry should each receive a fair degree of attention, and both the informational materials and the development of the skills have a place in such a program; but both phases of training must culminate in a high degree of *serviceability* to the individual.

18. The emotional equipment of man is a part of his normal heritage, and ministers in a special way to his highest usefulness

[12] Cf. W. Arthur Cable, *A Program of Speech Education in a Democracy*, 30-33.

and happiness. The intellectual and the emotional are mutually complementary, each rendered to quite an extent impotent by the absence of the other. Each has a basic place in the daily life of a man, and each responds readily to training. And yet the present educational system takes little account of the emotional life, and almost entirely ignores it in its program of training. From the time the little child starts to school until he is turned out at the end an adult, there is very little in all the years of learning that is designed to cultivate the emotional nature. It is as if education had said: "These children have really but one eye; their right eyes are good eyes, and should be trained as highly as possible; but their left eyes are merely rudimentary vestiges of a crude and early day, and are not worth cultivating: we'll disregard them, and center our efforts on the right eye. These children have really but one arm and one leg: their right members are good and should be trained as well as possible; but their left members are not worth cultivating: we'll ignore them and devote our efforts to the right hands and legs." Substituting the intellectual and emotional capacities for the two eyes, arms, or legs, we have a fairly accurate picture of upwards of twenty-seven and a half millions of persons in the educational institutions of the United States, with possibly 135,000 turned out of our colleges and universities annually, with about four millions entering the elementary schools annually, and with approximately twenty-two million children enrolled in the kindergartens and elementary schools of this nation. To speech education it is peculiarly given to cultivate the entire man: the intellectual, the emotional, the social, and the physical.

19. Speech education should employ more objective aids to training than is done in most schools and colleges today. They should be employed in the development of personality, both in voice and action, and in language training. For the visible speech code, studio and class rooms should be equipped with wall charts, models, statuary, and paintings illustrative of the speaker, photographs of the speaker in action, and moving pictures of model speakers; and for self-observation and evaluation full-length mirrors and moving pictures of the efforts of the students themselves will be found decidedly helpful. For cultivation of the audible speech code, more use should be made of phonetic values and other standards of good speech by means of the radio, victrola records, and speaking pictures of good speakers. In these ways sectional, national, and international standards of good speech can be made graphic. For self-

study by the students, the dictaphone will make graphic intonations, range and change of pitch, the time factors, and certain other vocal characteristics; the telegraphone-acousticon—and especially the R. C. A. radio No. 59, with special home recording device—will be found unsurpassed aids to good teaching; and speaking pictures of a student will teach him more about himself in one hour than days of teaching by other means could accomplish.

20. In high schools and colleges, a standard basic course should be prerequisite to all other courses in speech. The work should comprise orientation materials, a definite fund of informational content relative to the fundamentals of speech, and the application of these principles in the development of speech skills. The course should be a real introduction to the field of speech, with practice, under trained supervision, in developing body, voice, and language to participate with at least a fair degree of effectiveness in the various forms of original speaking (conversation, conference speaking, the parliamentary assembly, business speaking, various types of public speaking); declamation; the telling of stories; the oral interpretation of narrative, lyric, and dramatic prose and poetry; pantomime and tableau; and acting in simple scenes. In colleges the informational content should include an approach to the psychological principles which dominate the speech situation, an understanding of the mechanics of speaking, and an approach to the structure and function of the various speech forms.

21. Departments of speech should formulate and enforce standards of effectiveness in the speech function. There is too much tendency to certify students for graduation upon the completion of a specified number of course units, irrespective of their skill in practical speech situations, and their ability to apply the scientific principles they have learned. "What can you *do* with what you have learned?" is seldom asked or considered. There is too little effort to co-ordinate in the minds of the students the work of the various courses, toward final, ultimate objectives in terms of life situations. An integrative action would be stimulated by a set of standards of effectiveness, vigorously administered by the department of speech.

The set of standards should cover Observation, Thinking, Feeling, and Speaking. Clearness and soundness of thinking, discernment of observation, strength and control of feelings, and the contributions of voice, body, and language to the effectiveness of the speech situation should be major tests. Unity, coherence, and organization of

one's content rely upon the quality of thought; distinctness of articulation, pleasing voice quality in enunciation, and persuasiveness of language, voice, and manner loom large in the formative side of the speaking; while standards of vocabulary, grammar, and other aspects of diction reserve for themselves a large place in a testing scheme.

22. The time may come when the practice of assigning only a passing or a failing grade may replace that of a series of passing grades, ranging from excellent to below average. But until that time does come, more uniformity should be followed in the bases upon which grades are assigned, and in the proportions of students to whom they are awarded.

There are three main phases of student work which should determine the grade to be awarded: (1) a grasp of the informational content of the course, (2) an ability to apply it in actual speech situations or to see the application that should be made, and (3) the degree of skill in the speech arts achieved in the course. And this last consideration should include not so much the native aptitude of the student for the skill involved, as the extent of his progress during the course.

As to the proportions of students to receive any certain grade, it should be recognized that of a large number of students or over several years of time, the work of about half of the students is found to be of average quality, represented by a *3* or a *C*; a definite group, usually about 18 to 20 per cent of the total number, are definitely above average, represented by a *2* or a *B*; about the same proportion are below average but still of passing quality, represented by a *4* or a *D*; a very much smaller group, usually 5 to 7 per cent, are definitely superior, represented by a *1* or an *A*; and about the same number definitely failures, represented by a *5* or an *F*. Experienced teachers will recognize that these percentages are approximations, and that no one small group—nor even any one large group, for that matter—will necessarily be found to represent these averages. No teacher has any occasion to say, as some have been known to say: "I know your work was good enough to deserve it, but I can give only one *A* in this course, and I had to give that to John." And there is no justification whatever for any teacher or student to think that because a speech, a reading, or an examination is "fairly good," it should receive a grade of *A*. "Fairly good" is not an *A*, but a *C*.

23. As the concluding item among the criteria, standards, and tests which can be mentioned within the limits of this presentation, may we recognize the need for a good proportioning of the various

phases and functions that should comprise the speech curriculum. The utilitarian values should be prominent in the introductory speech work; the intellectual, the emotional, the aesthetic, and the spiritualized forces should be well cultivated in the curriculum; the artistic should come in for due emphasis, but only a due amount; a definite and well-planned program should cultivate the social virtues; the literary values have a place, and so do the technical and the scientific; the historical constituent provides a needed perspective and an enrichment of perception when viewing any phase or detail of speech activity; the corrective phase is needed as a basis for personality adjustment and development; and the pedagogic aspects, in the college curriculum, are required as a professional basis. The fusion of all these values and powers contributes to that culture which it is the pride of present civilization to achieve.

III

Our third main topic had to do with relationships between the informational content of speech work and skill in the speech arts. It has not been so long since the average college course in speech consisted entirely of practice—drill in the art of speech. (And any one who would defend that condition must demonstrate one of three alternatives: that informational principles do not help to produce sounder art; or that college students already possess a working knowledge of the principles; or that the students would be unable to apply them, and therefore should not be given the principles in a course of study.) And more unfortunate still, the teachers of speech almost to a man possessed no body of scientific principles governing the speech function, but dealt their subject purely in the hit-and-miss fashion of the empiricist.

But it has been shown many times in the world's history, that all true and finished art is founded on scientific laws and principles. This fact holds as true in the field of speech as in music, painting, or sculpture. A typical example which doubtless comes to your minds is that of "unequal" balance or "adjustment in weights," presented by Professor Williamson in his textbook.[13] Examples could readily be multiplied. Therefore the teacher of speech—of any of the speech arts, in any type of school from the elementary grades through the college and adult continuation school—should not fail to be familiar with and to employ the scientific truths applicable in the teaching of speech.

[13]Arleigh B. Williamson, *Speaking in Public* (1929), 49-53.

For this purpose he will command widely varied types of knowledge: literary, scientific, historical, corrective, and pedagogical; and he will draw upon contributions from many sciences: physics, anatomy, physiology, neurology, bio-chemistry, pathology, surgery, therapy, psychiatry or psycho-therapy, psychology, philology, linguistics, and phonetics. He places the materials from these sciences in various groupings where they will eventually make up a science of speech: psychological principles of speech; the para-vocal physiology of speech; bio-chemistry as related to speech; stagecraft; acoustics; ous groupings where they will eventually make up a science of speech: bio-chemistry as related to speech; stagecraft; acoustics; voice science; phonetics; the pathology and therapy of the speech organism; and speech correction. Add to these the history of the speech forms and the pedagogical principles of the subject, and you have a fund of information in the field of speech which is as striking in its diversity as it is complementary in its function.

It is the business of trained workers in the research laboratory to discover scientific principles and relationships, to analyze controlled phenomena relating to the speech function, and to test observations, hypotheses, and theories arrived at by themselves or advanced by others. It is the function of pedagogy to apply the principles discovered, in the teaching of speech skills. Among the many problems that need attention should be mentioned the following:

24. There is need for more speech laboratories, well equipped, and for more trained laboratory workers. In the speech laboratory we are in need of masters of research, of high calibre and extensive training, who are dedicated to the rendering of a life of service in that field. Larger masses of data on the various problems are needed, that surer averages and more authoritative results may be obtained.

25. There is also needed a greater degree of profitable research in a myriad speech problems confronting us in all the fields mentioned above. The relationship of mind to matter and the laws governing this relationship, endocrine influences on the speaking personality, a rational basis of intuition, a chemical basis of emotion, the bases of human conduct, the etiology and therapy of stuttering and stammering, and a more scientific attack on the eradication of foreign language difficulties are typical of the many problems on which we need scientific information.

26. There is need, in the speech profession generally, of a better assimilation of the principles of psychology, biology, and the other sciences which contribute to the informational side of speech. All

too frequently courses labeled "The Psychology of Speech" have consisted of segments of a psychology course—brain structure and function, tone production, and possibly neural theory and motor activities—largely unapplied to the field of speech. The first graduate course I ever had in the psychology of speech, so-called, comprised mainly the physics and physiology of voice production, and never remotely referred to perception, memory, imagery, association, attention, reasoning, emotion, action, neural theory, instinct, habitual response, the learning process, the origin and development of speech, or any social aspect of speech. (And that was only nine and a half years ago, in a leading American university.) The reason for this situation was that the instructor was a professor of psychology who was unfamiliar with the field of speech.

27. Next, we certainly need a better integrated application of these principles in the teaching and practice of speech. Of course this will take time, plenty of it; but once the scientific principles are made available, their application in the teaching of the speech skills will speedily follow. Applications are needed not only in methods of teaching normal students, but in speech correction, personality re-education, physiological and psychic therapy, etc. Methods and treatments should be reduced to standard formulas, which every well-trained teacher should be able to adapt to meet individual cases.

28. Parallel with the applications just mentioned, should be an authoritative analysis of audience reaction, unencumbered by any sociological maze (such, I am told, as surrounds Spranger's *The Six Types of Men*), but combining the psychological and the biological. There should be a charting of the field of persuasion, the pedagogy of speech, and speech composition. Only a fragmentary start has been made in any of the three.

29. More authoritative textbooks are also needed in most phases of speech. The newness of the field as an academic subject of study is valid and sufficient reason for this present need, but the schools of tomorrow must be equipped with textbooks which exhibit more comprehensive treatment and analytic nature than do many of the texts today.

30. Two new trends in graduate work should be mentioned here, for their salutary effect upon the speech training of the future. One is the tendency, in American education, to parallel scientific research with a system of graduate professional training which culminates in a professional graduate degree, the degree of Doctor of Education. The Master of Arts degree has come to be generally regarded as a

professional degree. The Ph.D. degree is a research degree, and should remain such; but with the new realization of the need and importance of graduate work outside the research field and above the level of the Master's degree, a suitable curriculum is being developed, and there are now at least five American universities which grant the Doctor of Education degree on some such basis as this.

31. The other tendency to which I referred is that of permitting thesis subjects to be selected from the creative fields. In most universities which offer graduate work in speech, the candidate for an advanced degree has been obliged to perform his original investigation and to write his thesis in one of the scientific phases of speech. However, a deviation from this practice is demonstrated in a recent announcement from the School of Letters of the State University of Iowa, setting forth its plan to award advanced degrees for the production of creative or critical writing in lieu of the traditional type of dissertation.

Let us acclaim these two trends joyfully, for they inject constructive life-blood into the veins of the graduate school, and promise a teaching profession better trained for the classroom without ignoring the realms of scholarship and scientific approach.[14]

How much the close and constant affiliation of the scientific and the artistic realms will mean to the efficiency of speech training it is difficult to portray. But if we turn our eyes briefly to the past we may gain an impression of its significance by contrast with earlier periods.

We stand upon a prominence that offers to our view a panorama of the years. Mirrored to us on the smooth surface of the River of Time come scenes from that hoary age before the advent of recorded time, as chance and circumstance again unite to place upon the tongues and lips of tribal man that great co-ordinator and correlater of group activities and that powerful implement for regulating human conduct, speech. We see the charlatan speech correctionist, half-brother to the tribal medicine man, as he blisters or slashes halting tongues in a vain and foolish effort to relieve them of their malady. We see the sober empiricist, innocent of cumulative results of the world's experience, bringing much of his efforts to futility and exhibiting chaos in his techniques and methods. We see the scientific research worker, whose techniques and methods have a continuity

[14]For further adjustments and improvements which should be made in the study and teaching of speech, see W. Arthur Cable, *Cultural and Scientific Speech Education Today* (Boston, 1930), 4-19.

and a purposiveness admirable to behold, who understands cause and effect and who controls the conditions surrounding the phenomena with which he works—we see him dissolving age-old mysteries and removing the veil from many of life's secrets. Out of the future we behold the happy time when fact will replace fancy in all the minutiae of our teaching, when improved attitudes will cease to find mirth in the suffering efforts of a stutterer or a lisper, and pity instead will stir our hearts at his poor endeavors. Then will be ushered in such a state of culture as the world has never yet experienced, and in the creation of which speech education shall have lent a highly formative hand.

A SURVEY OF SPEECH WORK IN COLLEGES IN THE SOUTH

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THIS survey was born of downright curiosity. We had heard on several occasions that the Southern colleges and universities were backward with reference to work in speech. The expression *backward* meant by implication that there were few instructors offering little work in lesser courses for insignificant credit. Facts offer a fine defense. We have some of the facts. Data were collected and tabulated from 230 colleges and universities located in 15 Southern states; in this total of institutions represented, there are 52 teachers' colleges. The schools are situated in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

The procedure followed was to obtain the catalogue from each institution and from the announcements for the school year 1931-32 to endeavor to locate the work offered in speech, irrespective of what department or name it went under. Anyone who has ever read, studied, and attempted to understand and interpret the material contained within the covers of a college catalogue knows that ours was no small task. In cases of doubt, and they were numerous, we wrote to a member of the faculty of the school in question and asked his help. A reply was forthcoming in every instance and as a consequence we have some rather reliable information on each institution.

We first asked ourselves the question, In what department is the speech work given in these 230 colleges and universities? The

answer is that in 81 of them it is in the English department. As 30 of the schools in the South give no work whatsoever in speech (if they do, it was so skillfully hidden that we were unable to discover it), this means that where there are courses in speech taught, they are under the jurisdiction of the English department in 41% of the cases. Where the work is not given in the above-mentioned department, it appears under the departmental head of Public Speaking in 39 institutions, followed by Speech with a total of 36, Expression with 19, English, Speech division 7, Dramatic Art 4, English, Spoken English division 3, English, Public Speaking division 3, Expression and Dramatic Art 3, Expression and Public Speaking 2, Speech and Dramatic Art 2, Public Speaking and Dramatics 2, and one each of various combinations. The prize for the strangest combination should be divided between these two: Journalism and Public Speaking, and Expression and Physical Training. Standardization certainly has not gripped the teachers of speech in the labeling of their departments.

The survey showed that there were 216 people devoting their full time to the teaching of Speech, 113 giving part time. At one extreme we find one department with one part-time instructor giving a one-semester, one-hour course; at the other extreme we find a staff which consists of seven full-time teachers. When we consider only the teachers' colleges, we find that 10 of the 52 offer no speech work, 18 have one part-time instructor, 25 have one or more full-time instructors, and the largest staff is three persons devoting their entire time to the work. Forty-eight schools, in addition to the regular class work, give private instruction which almost without exception is training in platform reading. An inquiry into the present status of private instruction would be of considerable interest to the profession.

We found a striking lack of uniformity in the titles of the courses, and a corresponding lack of agreement between title and content. In some colleges the courses are all named Public Speaking, in spite of the rather obvious fact that Interpretation and Dramatics are the only phases of speech covered in the courses. Rather than attempting to make an enumeration of the different courses found in the schools, we thought it advisable to check the semester hours offered in the various aspects of speech. In several cases some of the courses are offered in alternate years, but they were included in the tabulation because a student during his collegiate career would have an opportunity to take them. Such a check of semester hours offered was difficult to make as some of the catalogues are very vague as to the amount of credit, if any, that is allowed for speech; several restrict

the credit to three hours to be used as a minor elective in English. In reading one catalogue, of course this was an exceptional case, it was impossible to discover the credit allowed although the course in Expression consisted of four years' work; the person to whom we wrote regarding this answered that the amount of credit that was allowed varied. Some of the course-content descriptions savor of so many aspects of speech that it is difficult to know how to apportion the credit on a semester hour basis. For example run your eye along the following description:

> Practice Teaching. Unity of Expression from Pause, Touch, Change of Pitch, Inflection, Tone Color, Intensity, Movement, Repertoire, Harmonic Training of Voice and Body, Abridgement of Books for Graduate Recitals, Coaching of Plays, Rehearsals, Farce Comedies, Formal Public Recitals.

or this:

> Choice and arrangement of readings, aesthetic and folk dancing, story telling and one-act plays developing some special theme. The student's originality and sense of responsibility is developed by organizing these into a unified whole, directing group rehearsals, staging, costuming and general production.

However we persevered and, wherever it was possible to do so, tried to evaluate the work, using the following classification (we realize that it is largely arbitrary and was adopted primarily for convenience):

Public Speaking—we included the courses that seemed from their description to center the emphasis on original speaking.
Interpretation
Dramatic Production
Dramatic Literature—we included the courses in the history of the drama, readings in drama, play-writing.
Argumentation and Debate
Voice Science and Diction—we included the courses in phonetics, speech correction, anatomy and physiology of the vocal organs.
Teaching Methods
Oratory

In the classification adopted, Public Speaking leads with a total of 1016 semester hours offered, followed by Interpretation with 993, Dramatic Production with 806, Argumentation and Debate with 434, Voice Science and Diction with 356, Dramatic Literature with 164, Oratory with 122, and Teaching Methods with 111. Exclusive of teachers' colleges, 22 of the 178 schools studied offer some course work in Teaching Methods—however, many of them incorporate this work in part in courses in Debating, Dramatic Production, and Inter-

pretation. Excluding the same group, we obtain the following table which presents some interesting facts:

State	*Number of colleges considered*	*Semester hrs. offered*
Alabama	10	249
Arkansas	6	132
Florida	6	195
Georgia	15	230
Kentucky	9	167
Louisiana	7	119
Mississippi	10	178
Missouri	16	336
North Carolina	19	271
Oklahoma	7	264
South Carolina	17	194
Tennessee	15	135
Texas	20	625
Virginia	15	145
West Virginia	6	142
Total 15	178	3382

The average for each institution is 19 semester hours; the equivalent of 6 semester courses of slightly more than 3 hours credit each. We feel that that is a very creditable showing for any section of the country and it rather tempts us to invite comparison. The state of Oklahoma has the highest average, 37.7 semester hours of speech per college, followed closely by Florida with 35 hours. The lowest average is that of Virginia with 9.6 hours in the colleges, due in large part to the fact that five of the fifteen schools studied in that state have no course work in speech, so far as we could discover.

Considering again only the teachers' colleges, we found that where the work is offered at all the range is from 2 to 44 semester hours, with an average of nearly 15 hours. Six of the 10 schools in which the courses are taught in a Department of Speech are in one state, Oklahoma, with a standardized course of study according to the catalogue description; each of these six schools offers 26 or more semester hours—a good mark for others to shoot at.

The survey presents opportunities for making many comparisons —between states, schools in the same state, private and state supported institutions, women's, men's, co-educational colleges—we have refrained from doing this as our purpose was quite different: we were simply curious. Our curiosity is satisfied: We know in part at least what is being offered in the way of courses in Speech in the Southern colleges and universities. Unfortunately our curiosity has

increased: How does our section of the country compare with others? That question we leave with you.

Some kinds of information can be secured only by the happily extinct (?) method of the questionnaire. Our letter, as sent to some two hundred and fifty Southern colleges and universities asked for replies to seven questions. Although only about one hundred and fifty made satisfactory responses, these indicate a lively interest in the inquiries.

To our question, "Are you or any of your staff doing research work in any phase of speech?" 116 replied in the negative and 30 in the affirmative. A frequent comment, "Teaching load too heavy to permit of research" is at once fully credible and regrettable. This situation accounts in part for the high percentage of negative replies.

Subordinate to our first question was the request for a brief indication of the nature of any research completed or being carried on. The work reported can best be told by listing a number of the topics. Phonetics, variously used, heads the list and includes, "Phonetics for Technique of Voice Production," "Palatography, Experimental Phonetics," "Study of Phonetics among the Students of the Mountain Section," and "Phonetic Comparisons." Two studies in "Speech Pathology" were reported. That some attention is being given to the newer form of communication is reflected in the next two topics reported: "Radio Speaking, and the Value of Radio in the Improvement of the American Speech," and "Motivation Effect of Radio Microphone Tests and Radio Broadcasting upon Cultivation of Speech Hygienic Practices."

Other interesting topics of research can not readily be grouped; yet their occurence is well worth noting: "Effect of Speech Courses on the Personality of the Student," "Phrasing," "Etymology of Carolina Colloquialisms," "Speech Psychology," "History of Rhetorical Theory in America," "Period Plays with Customs and Costumes of the Period," "A Study in the Development of a Theory of Homiletics in England from 1534 to 1692," "Fundamentals Course in Speech for College," "Southern Oratory," "Inquiry into Problems of Resonance," "Corrective Speech," "A Study of the Part Played by Public Speaking in Industry," "Speaking as an Industrial Asset." These studies when carried to completion should be of great value, and if published will do much to correct any notion that the South is doing nothing worthy of the name of research.

This last observation becomes even more warranted when we associate what has already been stated with the replies to another

question in our letter: "Do you know of any studies being made especially with speech in the South?" This query, with its subordinate note as to the nature of any known research, called forth favorable responses from 23 schools. From these we learn of the work in ballads and folk-drama at the University of North Carolina, of the folk-drama and folk-lore studies in the southwest (Texas), and of the work of the Kentucky Folk Lore Society. A few of the other studies reported under this heading were: "Analysis of the Speech of the Southern Negro," "French Dialect at Louisiana State University," "Oratory Preceding the Civil War." What may well be regarded as research has resulted in one case in the writing of one-act folk plays.

A third question concerned the writing and publishing of articles or books on speech. Out of 146 replying, 44 had written and had published a total of 98 articles and 1 book. The favorableness of this statement is somewhat reduced when we learn that three persons were responsible for 51% of these writings. It would seem, however, that we are on the verge of remedying the lack of productive investigations.

A fourth question concerned the trend in enrollment in Speech courses over the period of the past three years. To this query 150 definite replies were received. Eighty-four schools reported increases for this period, with comments ranging from slight to great increase. There was a decrease noted in 13 institutions, explained in several instances by such comments as, "only in proprotion to other electives," "due to state education requirements crowding." In 46 schools the enrollment was reported as stationary; 7 schools have no courses in Speech. This report was based on figures just prior to the school year 1932-33; it would be interesting to know how enrollment has fared this past depression year. At the University of Florida we are happy to report a consistent increase.

Of course an increase in enrollment might reflect a desirable or an undesirable condition, but with the rapid improvement in content and methods it is doubtless safe to regard these increases as a good indication. Our graduate schools, the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, and other publications in our field, including an occasional text of merit, and our professional conventions appear to be bringing us rapidly to the point where increases in enrollment will be the general experience and will in practically every case reflect a very wholesome condition.

Questions five and six sought in two respects to discover the

policy of admission to courses in speech. Number five asked, "Are Speech courses required?" One hundred forty-two answers were definite on this point. Of these, 78 state that speech courses are not required. Repeated comments, of which the following are typical, reflect a favorable attitude toward speech courses: "Those needing remedial treatment are urged to take the foundation course," "Ministerial students are urged to take the Practical Speaking course." Sixty-four schools reported one or more required speech courses. These courses range from 1 hour for freshmen, to 6 hours for "Freshmen in Teachers Training Course." The following comments further reveal the directions in which required courses in Speech have been developing: "Engineers and Agricultural Engineers, 3 hours," "3 hours for engineering and agriculture students and business administration majors"; three other schools reported a one-course requirement in speech for all students in engineering. The comments continue as follows: "Four hours for English majors and high school teachers of English," "3 hours for freshmen, six hours for English majors," "2 hours for the A.B. degree," "Pre-law 3 hours, 2 semesters; engineers 2 hours, 2 semesters," "1 hour per week for freshmen," "All sophomores are required to take speech 2 hours through the year," "6 hours for freshman Teachers Training course," "3 hours (fundamentals) for degree students in Teachers College," "3 hours for women taking physical education work."

We may well be concerned with a number of questions involved in this aspect of speech education and its relation to the rest of the curriculum. Should a speech course be required of all students? Who, if any, should be exempt? How determine exemptions? What should be the content of a required course? A special study of this last question is being made by the Southern Association of Teachers of Speech during this year. How many hours should this course take? What size section should be striven for? At what stage in the student's academic career should the required course in speech be taken? These and other questions may well continue to be studied and tested and made the subject of discussion in our conventions.

Our sixth question, "Are freshmen admitted to speech courses?" brought out the present practice as to one of the questions just raised. Out of 138 answers to the query, 48 were in the negative, with only two schools qualifying the answer in any way. These qualifications were, "No, except in rare cases," "Only exceptional freshmen who participate in intercollegiate platform events." Eighty-nine stated that they do not admit freshmen to Speech courses, four

of these however, with the following restrictions: "After one semester," "Only as exceptions," "To elementary course only," "Only if they have passed 2 terms of freshman English with A grades."

When we observe the growing tendency in many places to make the freshman year's work very largely, if not entirely, prescribed, and when we confess to the dubious material represented in many youths who somehow get admitted to college, and when we weigh the advisability of investing our effort in the unselected total, as against the somewhat select many who survive the first year, we may come to see that our best interests may be served by not opening speech courses to freshmen.

Having read that "literary societies" were no longer extant, we timidly inquired, "Are there literary societies on your campus?" To our surprise we learned that out of 145 schools answering this question, 116 admitted having this obsolete and non-modern species still alive upon their campuses. In fact the total number of these societies proved to be 285. On only five of the 116 campuses were they described as "inactive"; on 19 they were reported as "active at times"; whereas on 92 these mediaeval gatherings were averred to be *"active."*

From our association with a large number of teachers of speech in the colleges and high schools of the South and from the facts brought out by this inquiry, we feel justified in stating that there is an encouraging outlook for speech education in the South. The speech teachers in our section are devoting some attention to research, and are doing a slight amount of writing. The enrollment is increasing in the majority of schools—this is at least a partial indication of satisfactory teaching. The Southern Association of Teachers of Speech is rapidly growing up and is enlisting the interest and serving the needs of an ever increasing number of our teachers; we are professionally "coming of age" and are receiving due recognition from students, faculties, and administrators. We trust the day is rapidly approaching when speech education in the South will by comparison have "nothing for which to apologize."

CHOOSING LITERATURE FOR READING CONTESTS*

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THE problem assigned to me for discussion this afternoon is the result of a very definite and oft-expressed desire on the part of the members of the Speech Division of the Arizona Education Association that they be given suggestions which might be applied in the selection of material for use in interpretative reading contests, local, intersectional, and state. You have all had the experience, not entirely pleasant, of being judges or members of an audience at competitive speech contests where you were amazed at the lack of good material used by the contestants. Time and again you have listened to trite selections endowed with an ability and talent of which they were unworthy. You have probably wondered at the apparent lack of material and on several occasions many of you have expressed the hope that something tangible might be suggested which would raise the standard of these contests and give the participants as well as the audience something of real literary value. I shall endeavor to give concrete suggestions along this line.

A judge's score card for the interpretative reading contests of the Arizona High School Speech Arts League assigns ten per cent of the final score to the choice of subject matter and author. You may argue that ten per cent of the final score is almost negligible, but I should like to point out that this particular phase of the scoring of contestants has a very definite relationship to the other factors involved in judging. These include "an adequate understanding and appreciation of the content, both intellectual and emotional, and dramatic sense and ability to capitalize it through muscular adjustments, voice and enunciation." These qualities depend almost entirely on the material with which the contestant is working. Without a good choice of selection, how can there be qualities, emotional and intellectual, which may be comprehended by the participant? A humorous selection by Chick Sale, amusing as it may be, offers very little depth for successful interpretation. A death scene which involves an almost maudlin emotion bordering on the burlesque cannot be endowed even by the most expert speaker with any great feeling.

*Presented at the Department of Speech, Arizona Education Association, 1933 convention.

Selections of little or no literary content prove of questionable value for either the speaker or his audience and are frequently the cause of much wasted talent.

Other factors which are rated individually from ten to fifteen per cent of the final score are Voice, Enunciation, Bodily Participation, and Purposefulness and Moving Power. Voice involves the qualities of pleasantness, resonance, clarity, quality and the conveyance of thought and feeling through communicative irregularity of pitch, rate and force. Enunciation includes distinct articulation, pleasing vowel sounds, front resonance and acceptable pronunciation. Bodily participation involves grace, strength and ease. Purposefulness and moving power involve the ability to quicken, thrill and compel. Can you introduce such qualities as these into selections unworthy of their inclusion? If such be the case, the individual reader is probably superior to his material. Can one be graceful and have platform composure and ease when he is exhibiting it in a mediocre selection? Can thought and feeling be conveyed when the selection proves unworthy of the effort put forth and when there is no thought and feeling included in the selection?

The popular impression of a "reading" is that it must be cut and dried, from a book of selections labeled *Choice Readings,* that it must be a unit in itself written for a selective purpose, that of facing an audience with a complete composition for vocal interpretation. It is this fallacy which I wish to combat. There is a wealth of material of unsuspected value hidden in the great literature of contemporary and past periods which has hardly been touched upon for this purpose. A short survey of present possibilities disproves the statement that there is nothing new under the sun. True, certain selections have proved of undoubted worth through their constant repetition, but in these cases the original value has been lost through familiarity. I refer to such selections as "The Soul of the Violin," "Ashes of Roses," and "Jean Valjean and the Bishop."

The following authors form a suggestive list which may well be used for selections. Certain passages from these authors who are accepted in their time and field may be "cut" so that they form excellent material for contestants. I have grouped them according to the types of material they write. This list is merely suggestive of the vast possibilities which you may realize.

Short Stories:

American

Davis, Richard Harding—avoid Van Bibber stories; others good.

Harte, Bret
Henry, O. (William Sidney Porter)
Irving, Washington
Negro stories—Harris, Joel Chandler; Page, Thomas Nelson
Poe, Edgar Allan
Steele, Wilbur Daniel.

English
Burke, Thomas—Limehouse stories.
Kipling, Rudyard
"Saki"—H. H. Munro. Avoid the too sophisticated stories.

French
Coppee, Francois
Daudet, Alphonse
Maupassant, Guy de—some of the best to be found anywhere.

Russian
Chekhov, Pushkin, Turgenev—avoid the too gloomy stories.

Fiction:

Cuttings may be made with comparative ease from the works of the following:

Balzac, Honore de
Cooper, James Fenimore
Dickens, Charles. One of the best authors for characterization.
Such books as David Copperfield, Old Curiosity Shop, Pickwick Papers, Tale of Two Cities, etc. are full of incidents which may be easily removed from their context.
Hardy, Thomas—avoid too sombre scenes. Especially good for dialect.
Stevenson, Robert Louis—especially his books for children.
Twain, Mark (Samuel Clemens)—eternal appeal of youth; crammed full of familiar incidents which never grow stale in retelling. Tom Sawyer, Huckleberry Finn, Innocents Abroad and the Prince and the Pauper especially recommended. Beware of too comical scenes.

Fiction, Modern:

Bennett, Arnold
Cather, Willa
Conrad, Joseph—action.
Ferber, Edna
Galsworthy, John
Garland, Hamlin: boys and girls.

Negro:
Bradford, Roark
Heyward, Du Bose
Peterkin, Julia

Drama—Cuttings:

One-act plays are especially good and may be easily cut.
Barrie, Sir James
Coward, Noel
Crothers, Rachel—modern American comedy
Maugham, Somerset—avoid too dramatic episodes
Pinero, Sir Arthur Wing
Shakespeare should not be attempted except by mature students.

Essays:

Leacock, Stephen—one of the funniest, yet amazingly clever.
Morley, Christopher—lack drama, but stimulating and clever. Avoid more sophisticated essays.

Poetry:

Avoid selections which are too deep and those which merely depend upon sound and rhyme.
Specialize on *narrative* or character sketches.
Masefield, John: cuttings of longer narrative poems.
Masters, Edgar Lee, *Spoon River Anthology*, for small town characters
Robinson, Edwin Arlington—avoid sombre passages
Sandburg, Carl
Weaver, John V. A.—excellent poems of commonplace people, largely in slang, yet containing excellent thoughts.
Negro:
Cullen, Countee
Dunbar, Paul Laurence
Johnson, James Weldon

Now that I have suggested specific authors and works for use in interpretative reading contests, let me indulge in a few generalizations and warnings. In the first place there does not seem to have been a proper line drawn between interpretation and impersonation. Webster defines the former as apprehending and representing by art, a translating and making clear through rendition. Impersonation is defined as acting or typifying a character. The difference may be noted in the typical negro selection. Too many times the contestant may personify the negro character through words and action, and the surface effect is apt to be pleasant, providing the diction and gestures of the speaker convey the character to his audience. How different this is from the actual interpretation which involves a study of the negro, his innate being and psychology and his thoughts as well as actions! Instead of witnessing a character-study the audience has a real comprehension of the negro character and disposition. Though closely allied, there is a distinct difference. Interpretation involves slight impersonation, perhaps, but is much more than just that. The reader who attempts to present the typical town gossip, for instance, often fails to generalize and, instead of realizing the possibilities of this type, gives us a mere character sketch or impersonation of Arabella Foxgay, Fanny Frizzle, or Polly Priss. Silly sketches without depth or literary value are to be avoided wherever possible as not being worth the efforts of the contestants or the time of the audience. The popularity of the death-scene type of selection has become almost a mania. At a recent contest six out of seven selections offered by contestants of high school age were of this type. One of the first rules of platform work is that the reader must keep within the emotions capable of being portrayed by the interpreter. What young man or woman of high school age knows and compre-

hends enough of the mystery of death to endow it with the emotion adequate for its expression? Great actors fear such scenes in their dramas, yet we have the spectacle of students of immature emotion attempting what seasoned stage veterans fear! Death cannot be adequately expressed by those who have not yet reached a stage of mature emotionalism. Why should we continue to expect our young speech students to reach heights which can only be attained by experience and genius?

Another rule which is constantly ignored is that which suggests that a good selection must have a minimum of gesture. Some of the readings chosen for interpretation in contests involve a use of gesture which borders on the burlesque. A contestant attempts to cram into a seven or ten minute selection all the gestures known and familiar to students of voice and speech. He indulges in bodily movements and postures which are nothing short of ridiculous. He leaves nothing to the imagination, that keen sensibility which must be a definite part of every presentation, and the result is artificiality and affectation. He uses the same gesture over and over again until the audience has an inclination to nervousness and feels like entreating the reader to use others. Failure to create the desired impression is almost always due to this misuse of gesture, that quality which may be of the greatest value in interpretative reading. In wishing to create a desired impression he oversteps the bounds of good platform presence and by leaving nothing to the imagination of his listeners he fails in his desired purpose.

My plea, then, is for literary quality in the selections chosen for contests. Quite surprising results, both in the response of the audience and in the abilities of the contestants, will be seen when the selections reach a uniform standard of quality and worth. Surely we owe to our speech students the compliment of assigning them material worthy of their efforts.

RADIO SPEECH IN HIGH SCHOOL

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RADIO speech is one of our most recent developments in the organized field of speech. As speech grew out of a desire to communicate, so the more specialized developments of communication have grown out of desires to facilitate and improve methods of communication. Regarded at first as a novelty and something only

for experimentation, radio speech has by now firmly established itself as an integral part of any well-organized speech program, not only in universities and colleges, but also in the up-to-date high school.

No one can deny that radio speech is a fascinating study and a most interesting field in all its aspects. The appeal that it has and the challenge that it directs to the student, enhances its educational value, not only through its interesting and unusual application of speech technique, but also in the breadth of appeal to the student through its inter-relation with other fields represented in the high school curriculum.

While radio speech in its entirety is a little-explored field, it is very much undeveloped and untried in high schools. The better equipped universities and colleges now include in their departments radio speech, but it seems that its application to high school equipment, conditions, and students has been somewhat overlooked. It should be of interest to progressive high school speech instructors to see the possibility and practicability of radio speech in their own schools to broaden and supplement the work that is now being done.

Immediately one asks, "Is it practicable? What about the equipment?" This is certainly a logical and justifiable question, especially during present economic conditions. Heretofore, equipment of the nature required was almost prohibitive in its cost, but the recent developments in the field of radio have brought the cost of equipment down to a nominal figure. Statistics show us that a great percentage of the larger high schools now have radios as part of their regular equipment. In most cases, with a view to getting the greatest possible use from them, they are radio-phonograph combinations. This can easily form the basis for the high school radio speech equipment.

To the phonograph plug, which is usually so designated at the back of the radio, a short wire with a connecting plug can be attached. This can now be left permanently and enables the remaining equipment that is necessary to be detached from the radio. The other necessary equipment includes a double-carbon microphone, a microphone transformer, a volume control, a dry cell battery and the necessary insulated wire. The microphone transformer, the volume control, and the battery should be assembled together in a small kit or box-like structure to facilitate handling and use. Lead-in connections on one side enable the microphone to be connected to the transformer, and on the other side from the out-going connections, runs the wire of necessary length to the short wire, mentioned before, that was connected to the phonograph plug on the radio-phonograph.

Any competent radio service man can connect the equipment and construct the kit for the transformer, volume control, and battery. The advantage in having a kit of this kind is that wires may be run permanently from several rooms to the radio, and the equipment, including the kit and the microphone, can be moved and connected or disconnected at will. It also enables this part of the equipment to be disconnected and put away, if the instructor so desires, after using it.

The necessary equipment, a double-carbon microphone, a microphone transformer, a volume control, a dry cell battery, the necessary plugs and connections, and two hundred feet of insulated wire can be purchased from a reputable dealer, and installed at a cost of from twenty to twenty-five dollars at the most. In some cases the money can be raised by the department by giving plays, sponsoring entertainments, or by dues assessed members during the year. In all cases, some device can always be worked out by the department itself in nearly all schools where radio speech is desired. The value of having it purchased through the efforts of the speech students lies in the satisfaction of independence of operation and greater student interest and care of equipment. From the standpoint of equipment and cost, a high school project in radio speech is in most cases possible and within the means of most departments.

Now the question arises, "Will its benefits justify the cost and bother of installing equipment?" I believe that in the opinion of those who have had experience in this field, there is no doubt that it is more than justified by its educational value and also in its capacity as an entertainment device when the occasion so demands. Looking at it from a general point of view, it certainly enlarges the student's educational experiences. Educators tell us that we grow in terms of beneficial educational experiences or adventures. Through radio speech a new vista of practical speech is opened to the student, and he identifies himself and his efforts with the actual radio work which he hears. Radio plays, sound effects, and continuity writing, as well as announcing, immediately mean more to him, and constitute a constant challenge as well as goal of perfection for him to attain.

Its value in the field of speech is of greatest interest to us. In addition to supplying us with a new field, interesting and challenging, it also provides us with means to supplement and call for greater skill in other phases of speech. Vocalization immediately takes on a new importance. Through amplification of all sounds uttered near

the microphone, and the absence of the speaker, voice quality can in some measure be divorced from individual characteristics of the speaker, whether good or bad, and be analyzed and studied. Errors in pronunciation, enunciation, inflection, as well as actual quality can be studied and analyzed thoroughly. Faulty breathing during vocalization becomes so apparent over an ordinary sensitive microphone that it is apparent to the most casual listener.

Not only can talks be given over this equipment, but also drama and interpretation as well. Here again it proves its value. Radio drama requires voice control and study for successful character delineation. Flexibility and variety are obtained many times under these circumstances where before the class it was utter failure. There must also be a director who in his capacity unites this further with dramatic work. It gives a new phase to the application of dramatics in the field of speech. Students are also stimulated to investigate dramatic material that may be adapted to radio work. In some cases, students have dramatized current events, incidents in history, as well as portions of prominent three-act plays, and not only gained the experience of putting them on as a finished production but, unknown to themselves, united speech work more closely with other subjects in the high school curriculum. Occasional radio debates thoroughly enhance interest in forensics, and enliven what in some cases may be a dull debate season. Some suggestion of its application to the regular high school speech work has here been given, but in view of the fact that it is a new field it may be added that the above are only *suggested* applications and that to realize its greatest benefits, an instructor should set about to make it serve his own peculiar needs and purposes.

Radio speech certainly provides a means of associating speech with other high school courses and making a school "speech conscious." As before mentioned, it can be correlated with history through dramatization and current events. The Continental Congress or the President's Cabinet meeting before the microphone not only calls for speech training but also fixes that event in the mind of the student so that incident is retained when others have been forgotten. The journalism student is given an opportunity to give the daily news, or perhaps a "news on the spot" broadcast, *a la* Ted Husing. The science student immediately busies himself with sound effects and the interesting and humorous devices that he can originate to add reality and life to the program. English instructors find this a means of adding variety to the composition course that has grown dull in

the mind of the student. Oral style in composition can then be not only demanded but also used under varying circumstances. It adds flexibility and gives training in effective reading from manuscript as anyone who has attempted to read before a microphone can well testify.

Radio speech equipment does not exhaust its functions in its use as before described in the field of speech. It has numerous practical applications. Convocation programs and group entertainments can be put on, and plays, skits, and pep stunts, such as advance broadcasts of an important game. In addition to this, we are told that there are over four hundred independent radio stations where our high school students many times have opportunities to appear in programs. Experiments in voice and rehearsals using school radio equipment make these people more confident and polished in their appearances by adding to their speech experience. While the practical phase of radio does not overshadow the educational value of this equipment, its value certainly merits consideration in this respect.

Throughout this article, an attempt has been made to put before those who are interested in modernizing high school speech with the addition of radio equipment, the practicability of such a project both from the equipment cost standpoint and its educational and practical value. No attempt has been made to present statistics and experiments, but merely to present some ideas as to equipment, cost, and opportunity for the use of the equipment. The attempt has been made to show the value of radio speech equipment in terms of applications that can be understood by all and adapted to individual needs. As a means of modernizing a speech department, making a high school speech conscious, correlating speech with other subjects in the curriculum, and providing something that has a practical as well as an educational value, the installation of radio equipment not only makes the high school speech department up to the minute efficiently modern, but it also pays big returns on the investment in terms of results.

HIGH SCHOOL DEBATING

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THE merits of high school debating have been the object of pro and con discussions by authorities of the past and present. Their analyses of this field of work have been from their point of view as leaders and organizers. To us, who have had the valuable opportunity of participating both in high school and college debating, high school debating takes on a more intimate and revealing aspect. Our analysis of this activity is from the point of view of those who follow the speech directors.

Retrospection discloses that in the training received in high school debating lies the attainment of benefits and qualities inestimable in practical life-application by the young high school graduate. More than anything else, the participant derives a poise, security, and self-assurance in any attempt to impress others, by speaking, with his personality and effective presentation of his ideas. He gains a respect for conflicting hypotheses, and is awakened to a keener interest in the pursuit of truth. This challenge to the immature intellect of the debater, either as a student or graduate from his respective institution, instils an enthusiastic appreciation of governmental, social, and economic situations. Fresh from lively discussions of such questions as unemployment insurance, direct primary, chain stores, and radio control, problems involving institutions confronting a citizen in every-day life, the debating individual finds himself growing in comprehension and ability to pry into the "mysteries" commonly conceded to be attendant upon national questions.

However, retrospection further discloses that training for the attainment of these qualities is lacking. We find the average high school debater has little or no understanding of the fundamentals of argumentation. Stock issues, induction, deduction, analogy, and brief are words which enter neither into the realm of his comprehension nor into his vocabulary. Because of this lack of fundamental argumentative knowledge, his reasoning is almost wholly by authority or statistics, often disconnected, jerky, and illogical. His mind pulls in conflicting directions, often leaving him, in the face of the opponent's objections, bewildered and confused on the platform. Training in the actual finding of material is sadly neglected, just because of the altogether too thorough work of debate directors. Evaluation of this

same evidence and its logical organization remain almost wholly the responsibility of the director of forensics. Ask any high school debater the logical steps involved in the construction of a brief: definition of terms, pros and cons, issues, and main contentions. While it is true he works with a definite outline, the mechanics of its construction are foreign to him. Speeches written by the debater are too often the result of accumulated authorities and excerpts from debater's manuals, rather than of self-expressive, logical reasoning.

Is there one co-ordinating agency that will serve to organize, and strengthen the training which the high school debater is already receiving? To us, that agency is the training in the principles and fundamentals of debating which the director of debate is able to give to the individual whom he is training. We do not pretend to infer that an exhaustive and detailed course in argumentation, as is offered in our colleges, is essential to that agency. The barest of fundamentals of argumentation, given to the high school debater, and couched in his vernacular, will conserve his efforts by organizing his thinking, and will facilitate his planning. Growth of the individual and progress in the art of debating are accelerated.

At the outset of a debate season, simple explanations and illustrations of argumentative terms and technicalities should be firmly fixed in the mind of the high school student. Every-day examples of different types of argumentation, which the student himself may gather from current editorials, literature, and conversation, would illuminate the technicalities of debate. By means of these examples, the student would be trained to recognize an analogy, inductive and deductive reasoning, valid and reliable statistics, and sound authority. With a background such as this, the formerly limited field of evidence would expand to embrace a variety and wealth of material, hitherto untouched by the average debater. Discriminating, critical, and extensive reading would result by an individual who is seeking comparisons, generalities, and sound reasoning for his evidence. He may utilize this knowledge of argumentative mechanics in the gathering of his material, in its evaluation, and logical organization, thus conserving both time and energy otherwise expended on weak evidence, scattered thinking, and incoherent arrangement of facts. As a result of this knowledge, he is able to follow the lines of greater self-expression and varied argumentation in a constructive speech, while in rebuttal, he may challenge more specifically the validity and reliability of an opponent's argument. Exercises in testing logic of conflicting viewpoints awakens an alertness of mind. Let the debater

understand that his "outline" is an argumentative brief, resulting from pros, cons, issues, and contentions.

The success of high school debating must rest upon a steadfast foundation, a foundation built upon logical thought and expression. Just as the lawyer's success depends upon his legal knowledge, the engineer's upon his mechanical knowledge, the doctor's upon his medical knowledge, so the debater's success rests upon his argumentative knowledge.

Is it expecting too much of the high school debater to ask that he know what he needs, how he can get it, and what he can do with it after he has found it?

WHY NOT A MAKE-UP CREW?

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IN our modern age with its subdivision of work, persons performing relatively humble tasks have been given dignified titles; for example, we have the titles of receptionist, bootblack engineer, mortician, and the like. In the case of high school play production, by analogy, we suggest the title "makeupician" or in more common terminology, as the title of the article suggests, the "make-up crew." Over a long period of time the organization of the high school stage crew has been routinized and the duties of each position generally quite well formulated. The stage crew is in charge of the prominent and all-knowing stage manager (who has, at least in his own estimation, even more authority than a professional stage manager); then come the electricians, the property men, the flymen, and so on. Why not a make-up crew?

Study has been made by the author of the production of numerous high school plays, and it was discovered that the make-up work is not as well organized as is desirable; the purpose of this brief article therefore is to give suggestion for the organization of the make-up crew in the high school.

Class instruction in make-up. If dramatics is a part of the high school curriculum, much of the foundation work for the make-up crew can be done in connection with classwork. In the case of the smaller schools in which this work is not being offered as a part of the curriculum—eliminated in some cases by Old Man Depression—this work may be sponsored by the dramatics club. The following

plan of instruction is suggested for one or two weeks during the semester.

From the "bright" pupils, or those who show the most ability in make-up work, a permanent crew can be selected. It is recommended, however, that all pupils who take curricular work or who are interested in dramatics, should have some idea of the make-up work that is being done for stage productions. The following is suggested for a series of five lessons in make-up:

First lesson—The kit of make-up tools; history and principles of make-up

Second lesson—Demonstration and application by class instructor of straight make-up.

Third lesson—Demonstration and application by class instructor of character make-up.

Fourth lesson—Hair goods, trick make-up, motion-picture make-up, etc.

Fifth lesson—Review of principles learned; each pupil applies a full and complete make-up, with costume, if possible; as this enhances and vivifies the instruction. The pupil works out his own characterization. Announcement of the Final Examination in Make-up could be made on the first day. The teacher may grade the work during the week—that is, each day—and on this day in particular. Pupils should alternate putting make-up on themselves and on others. Each pupil should have practice in both, and from the best and most adept pupils the teacher may select the permanent make-up crew.

By the process outlined, if intensive work is offered in drama by the school and if the pupils take the work for two or three years, they will receive about fifty hours of make-up instruction and will be more appreciative of the make-up work of others; in many cases, the drama-class pupils will prove of assistance to the make-up crew.

Materials, books, and pamphlets on make-up. One of the handiest guides to make-up in class is the collection of ten Max Factor make-up pamphlets. The complete list is given in the bibliography, together with other helpful but less recent publications. General procedures, as well as particular methods of achieving results are well and practically explained in these booklets. Many schools have found them to be a complete course in make-up, no further references being necessary. However, the teacher might do well to point out the additional value of bibliography in the study of make-up.

Make-up kits. The school should have a full and complete kit, such as the large one prepared by the Max Factor Company. In order to assure effective make-up instruction, each pupil should be provided with a smaller kit for his own use so that he can practise both in class and at home, and before and after stage production. The adage, "Practice makes perfect," is especially true in the art of make-up.

If it is not possible that each pupil or actor have his own make-up kit, several may club together and buy a small outfit, or the school may furnish enough materials for experimentation purposes. In any event, each pupil or actor should provide his own cold cream and make-up towel; this makes for speed and reduces confusion in the make-up room.

Scrapbooks. Pupils and teachers should collect clippings and pictures; these are readily obtainable from motion-picture and theatre magazines, covers of the *Saturday Evening Post*, the *Liberty Magazine*, and others. Even advertising materials are fruitful sources of examples of make-up, characterizations, physiognomy, and the like. Photographs of character actors are especially valuable. The various make-ups and disguises used by Lon Chaney now belong to immortality—they are classics. The young actor, Paul Muni, in his motion-picture play, *Seven Faces*, demonstrated that he was an adept follower of the Chaney tradition.

Organizing the make-up crew. When from five to twenty-five have been finally selected for the make-up crew—the number varying according to the pupils available and the needs of the department—special and intensive instruction can be given this group. Community theatres and other organizations could organize a similar crew.

Procedure in making up small groups. Whether any particular class is large or small, there will be a minimum of confusion at the time of production if the crew is well-organized and practised in the art of make-up. No general rule of thumb can be laid down for all high schools and all productions, but it will greatly facilitate matters if the make-up crew, like the lighting crew and other groups assisting in the production, see several dress rehearsals and understand fully the nature of the characterizations required in the play. In other words, the crew should be taken into the confidence of the director. Each member of the crew should have a typed list showing the name of each character, who is portraying it, and the make-up requirements and costume requirements for each character concerned.

It is advisable for the make-up crew to attend at least one rehearsal toward the end of the rehearsal period and get acquainted with the play as a whole and the characters in detail. If the players are stock or classic characters, each member of the crew should, if possible, be provided with a photograph or picture somewhat like the character to be made up. For example, the illustration of "Nick Bottom, the Weaver" in Cavendish Morton's book, (pages 76 and 77), provides an excellent pictorial and word description of this famous country

bumpkin. A few terse phrases might be placed after his name to show who he is and what are his chief characteristics, for example:

> BOTTOM, THE WEAVER, played by John Smith (name of pupil). Bottom is a leader of a comical crew of rustics; he is a country yokel or farmer type. To use some words that he quotes during the play, "He is quite, quite, dumb," as has been noted in the dress rehearsals, Bottom proved to be the type of a man who always wants to run everything, play all the parts, and "steal" the whole show.

A member of the trained make-up crew can take care of from three to five members of a cast, depending on the difficulty of make-up. In an exceedingly difficult make-up like Cyrano de Bergerac, it might be well to assign one person to that character only and to have him do a good job of it. He will profit immensely from this training under careful supervision. There should be at least one dress rehearsal with make-up under production conditions of lighting, scenery, and costume; where make-up has been tried and been found wanting, it is desirable that the character be made up again and tested under the same conditions.

Procedure in making up large groups. Almost the same procedure is used in making up large groups as in making up small groups, except of course that the crew must be expanded to take care of the larger cast. In the production of operettas or large pageants in which fifty, one hundred, or five hundred or more actors are involved, it is well to divide the actors into two large groups—the principals or leading characters and the chorus or "atmosphere." The most capable members of the make-up crew may well be assigned to take care of the principals, a competent teacher being in charge at all times. In the chorus, where probably only a light make-up is necessary, one person on the crew can take care of ten or more characters. In *Bole Armenia* and in other plays in which the entire body is made up, a special room should be provided for this work where ample space may be provided for the operation of the crew and soiling of the costumes of actors may be avoided.

For the chorus or large group, extra dressing-room space should always be provided, and the dressing rooms *should be separated* from the make-up rooms so that the make-up crew may work unhindered by noise and confusion. In situations where there are exuberant high-school pupils (upon occasion it has been known for college students to develop the same spirit of youth), it is well that a teacher be assigned to each make-up room and to each dressing room, even if this involves five or ten teachers. The resulting quiet and control of the

entire situation will amply repay the director for this trouble. A call boy to inform actors when they are ready to be made up and also for *entr'acte* intervals should be provided.

If moustaches, wigs, and nose putty are used, care should be exercised to have them in readiness before the actors arrive for make-up. The make-up crew should be on hand at least one half hour before the cast. Allow one or two hours before the curtain; time should be allowed in order to insure good make-up. Where performances are repeated several times, this period can be shortened. Each member of the make-up crew may be assigned to a definite place; this will reduce any confusion at the time of make-up.

Quick changes. After all make-ups have been put on the actors, all but one complete kit should be closed and put away. This might be left for emergency work during the performance and for quick changes. Where characters are doubling or have to make a change in their age or show stress of preceding events, as does King Leontes in Shakespeare's *Winter's Tale*, subtle changes in make-up should be made and carefully rehearsed. With practice, a complete change can be made in five or ten minutes.

General suggestions. Provision of smocks or aprons for the make-up crew is important to prevent soiling of clothes. Also, a large towel or smock is essential in order to protect actors' costumes. Some crews prefer to make up the actor while he is in his street costume. It is advisable, however, that the first make-up be done while the actor is in full costume with all his accessories—canes, staffs, wigs, and the like, in order that the make-up artists might see a complete picture of the character to be made up. There should be on hand a plentiful supply of cheese-cloth or a package of tissues to be used both in the preparation and removal of make-up. Make-up should be checked during the performance to note any "touching up" which is necessary. While make-up should be checked in detail at the time of the dress rehearsal, it is also well for the teacher to slip deftly into the back of the auditorium and check make-up several times during the performance and make the necessary suggestions to the crew.

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This volume is "a manual for the use of actors—amateur and professional." There are chapters on the history of the art, its application, and on make-up for various ages and nationalities. A list of the preparations of six leading manufacturers of make-up, given in the Appendix, is especially valuable.

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7. *Shakespeare Characters; Group A: Merchant of Venice, Merry Wives of Windsor, Midsummer Night's Dream*
8. *Shakespeare Characters; Group B: Richard III, Julius Caesar, Hamlet, Twelfth Night*
9. *Shakespeare Characters; Group C: Othello, King Lear, Macbeth*
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This set of booklets, which may be obtained for twenty-five cents or with the purchase of a complete make-up kit, forms a comprehensive guide to the art of make-up, as has been noted in the article.
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ORIGINAL SPEAKING

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THE term "Original Speaking" aims to include all of the activities popularly grouped under the headings "Oral English" or "Oral Composition" or "Extemporaneous Speaking." None of these latter terms is inclusive of all of the types of speaking that deal with original composition presented orally to an audience. The word "oral" in itself seems to disregard the factors of bodily activity and vocal emphasis and of achievement of certain motives in speaking. "English" and "composition" imply that the choice and arrangement of words is of greatest importance. In this discussion, each of the so-called techniques of presenting spoken compositions are considered, and the various types of situations in which original speaking is used are described. It should be understood that all of the rules of good speaking apply to every speaking situation, regardless of the time, place, audience, or motive for speaking.

Five-Finger Rules for Effective Speaking

These "five-finger rules" are so named because they may be made to fit the five fingers of a hand. They provide a simple device for remembering criteria for preparing, for delivering, and for criticizing all speech exercises. The thumb indicates the *content* of the speech or talk or story, toward which all other factors should work for effective presentation. The little finger stands for *bodily activity* —posture, etc—the first thing an audience notices about a speaker who is about to address them. The ring finger represents the voice, the next thing that comes to the attention of the listener. The middle finger is for *diction* and *pronunciation*. Even before we are aware of the content of the speech—what is being said—we notice composition, so the index finger stands for correct *English construction*. Just as the thumb is helpless to work without the assistance of the fingers, what one wants to say cannot be effective without all these other factors of presenting it.

The First Rule—Comfortable Posture with suitable Bodily Action

The whole body is needed to complete communication. Bodily activity accompanies all types of speaking. Sometimes this fact can be made clear best by stating it negatively: that, at least, a speaker should take care not to use any type of action that will detract from

what he is saying, or that will prove what he wants to say to be false. For instance, playing with one's necktie attracts attention from words to the action. A listener finds himself admiring the color of the tie, noting the regular movement with which it is manipulated, remembering that a necktie must be added to a gift list, or annoyed by the detraction from the speaker's message. Actions do speak louder than words, then. Another example: A child uses these words, "I'm not afraid, really," but he clings to his Mother's hand, he cringes from the noise, he starts at a movement, he trembles. His bodily activity belies his words.

The problem, then, is to develop consciously those movements, postures, gestures, that are appropriate to the verbal expression. These movements usually are the natural accompaniment to words. In a thoroughly un-self-conscious situation, they are always present. The first problem for the speech class, then, is to create an atmosphere that is real and natural and free from the artificialities of "show." In such a situation, pantomime is an effective first exercise in helping the child to understand how much his body can tell without voice. If he tries to tell his thoughts without voice, but with articulation movements, he finds the free body movement necessary to help tell his thoughts. His movements are exaggerated in his effort to make himself understood. Compare this performance for interest with the performance behind a screen, or from another room, or by radio. It is always more interesting when we can see the speaker. Children soon discover that it is the assisting bodily expression that makes the difference. Let children try to talk with stiff bodies, to see the contrast.

The most natural first step in learning to speak well is acquisition of bodily movement, or gesture, or pantomime, or posture. If, for some particular reason, this first step is awkward, or does not give the desired result, let the child start with something he can do with least effort, and develop ease of delivery step by step as the child gains control of voice, articulation, thoughts, and of his body.

Many helpful pantomime games are suggested elsewhere in these papers. They may be used purely for fun, or they may be definitely the first step in learning to talk effectively. They may serve the first rule for successful presentation.

The Second Rule—Appropriate Voice and Rate of Utterance

The speaker's voice must be clear, loud enough to be heard, of a pleasant quality and pitch, and with varied and appropriate inflec-

tions. There may be some indication of character in the voice, if there are several characters in the story. The rate of speaking should be regulated to fit the size and type of the room and the audience, and the spirit of the story.

With most normal speakers, little more than suggestion regarding change in pitch or increase in volume and force is necessary to achieve results. In the matter of pitch some suggestions as these might help: "Use your bass voice," "Let your voice have an up-and-down melody," etc. For adjustment of volume: "Let us all hear you," "Use a big voice for a big room," etc.

The regulation of speed is a more difficult task. Generally speaking the fast talkers are either those whose thoughts come quickly, or those who suffer from a generally accelerated physiological metabolism. These latter present a problem for the physician, and until their physiological problem is corrected, it were best not to call attention to the speed of their speech. For the other group, whose thoughts travel faster than their tongues, much education is required to adjust the two factors. It is well to suggest pauses between thoughts and phrases "so that the audience has time to understand what is said"; or to suggest prolongation of vowel sounds, emphasis on clear consonant articulation, accent of important words, etc.

In presenting variety of voice, it is helpful to use descriptive words or phrases that are easily within the range of children's comprehension — as "squeaky," "coarse," "smooth," "whiny," "soprano," "singy," "bass," "like a frog," "like a bird," "like your mother's when you have hurt yourself, or when she says goodnight," etc. Any device that assists the child in his perception of the quality should be used extravagantly. Usually, when a child has learned to *hear* qualities of sound, he is able to imitate, at least to approximate, the same qualities in his own voice.

The Third Rule—Correct Diction and Accepted Pronunciation

Elsewhere in these papers are discussions of ways to stimulate correctness in diction and pronunciation. With fair examples to copy, children soon develop a taste for good diction and accepted pronunciation, and put it into practice before their classmates in their speech programs and everyday language. They develop a critical attitude toward their own speech as well as that of their friends, and take delight in settling discussions concerning pronunciation by referring to the dictionary. And for all purposes in the elementary school, any good standard dictionary, *if properly used*, is sufficiently good author-

ity. It is important, however, that the symbols are thoroughly understood, and the key words checked carefully to avoid colloquial usage. Of course, the International Phonetic alphabet, used in the best standard English dictionaries, is much to be preferred in the hands of a teacher trained in phonetics. As soon as the desire and need arises, children may be taught the phonetic alphabet symbols, so that they may use pronouncing dictionaries with efficiency. Speech drills of the phonetic type may be introduced where they seem to be helpful as a class exercise. Individual problems of diction may have drills and exercises to fit the individual needs.

Perhaps the teacher's first duty in this respect is to provide the children with a consistent example of accepted diction and pronunciation, and thus encourage and stimulate them to imitate her example. We might repeat again that good usage is that used by the best speakers in any community. Negatively, we have achieved a fair standard if, in our speaking, there is no usage that is not recognized by any printed authority.

The Fourth Rule—Correct English Construction

The use of correct grammatical forms, in language free from glaring deviations from taste and standard, is an essential part of good speech. *It is not, however, synonymous with good speech.* Any device that makes conscious, and then habitual, the correct use of such verb forms as "came" "did" "were," etc. helps good speech. Absolute agreement between subject and predicate is essential. Language games, played with purpose and spontaneity, with life and earnestness, remembering principles of bodily activity in communication, appropriateness of voice, diction and pronunciation, are recommended.

Perhaps the most troublesome interference with good English construction in children's speech lies in the lack of "sentence sense" —the running of thoughts together with connectives, "and-a," "uh," "an' then," etc. Splendid suggestions for correcting this fault with all ages of children are found in the books listed in the bibliographical citations marked "Oral Composition." Controlled, spontaneous speech separates ideas with pauses, and connects ideas with vocal inflection. Unity and variety can be achieved at once by the use of vivid vocabulary and careful choice of words, by adjusting the length of sentence to fit the mood and ideas interpreted by it, and by arrangement of qualifying words and phrases within sentences.

Ear training is very important in educating for good English con-

struction. The consciousness of correctness probably comes first through conscious hearing. In this connection, as in almost all others concerned with speech, one cannot emphasize too much the role played by hearing. The example of a well trained teacher, one who has learned correctness of speech sounds as well as correctness of grammar, is the first requirement in speech education.

The Fifth Rule—Interesting Subject Material

Speech activities at any level of speech education must be spontaneous, motivated by some inner urge to tell something of vital interest to the speaker. Therefore, an assignment to "talk about Autumn" is purely false, unless the child has expressed the desire to talk about autumn, and cannot produce good speaking. Topics may be suggested, to remind a child that he does have something on one of the topics that he really would like to tell. Every child has some enveloping interest, and it is the business of education to provide a time and a place for him to talk about this interest, as well as to engage in it actively.

The content of a talk should be of interest to the listeners, as well as to the speaker. If possible, it should be connected with their own experience. It should be well within their comprehension, and worthwhile, either as information or entertainment. Those details should be chosen for inclusion in the story that have the greatest interest, that lead up to or result from the main happening. Only those details should be used that are necessary to give complete feeling or meaning, and that attract and hold interest.

The first, or beginning, or "lead" thought attracts interest immediately and introduces mood, feeling, the situation, characters, or anticipates what is about to be told. Closing words complete the idea or feeling or situation, with a real and vivid impression, one that is appropriate to the mood of what has preceded.

Original Speaking Applied in Real Situations

For the sake of clarity, let us distinguish between the meanings of the terms we shall use in the discussion of original speaking:

Original story telling in this category represents the extemporaneous presentation of a narrative experience, or of a story-with-a-plot, conceived by the child himself. (It is not so considered in its strand as separate activity in the unified speech program.)

Talks, reports, "speech making" represent uninterrupted oral pre-

sentation of any type of material, usually expository, by one person to a defined audience.

Conversation is the exchange, between two or more persons, of information and opinion on any topic of interest to them, with no particular problem at issue.

Interviewing is purposeful conversation, usually pre-arranged, intended to invite one speaker to give information and opinion regarding some subject upon which he is an authority.

Discussion involves exchange of information and opinion within a group with the purpose of solving or clarifying a specific problem.

Persuasive speaking is purposeful communication that is intended to cause the hearer to react favorably toward the purpose of the speaker, whether this purpose is a matter of thinking, feeling, or *acting*. It is popularly considered to include particularly the so-called "emotional" appeals.

Argument, for our purposes, may be looked upon as statement of fact or opinion supported by valid proof of its truth or reasonableness, intended to change the opinion of the hearers favorably toward the speaker's attitude.

Debating is an organized contest in the use of persuasion and argument.

Story telling and speech making imply that one person is speaking, without interruption, to a quiet audience, either to entertain them or to give them information on any type of subject matter. Conversation and discussion imply that two or more persons are talking together in a more or less informal situation. Persuasive speaking and argument may occur in any situation, but usually imply that somebody wants to impose his opinion upon another. One approaches discussion without any specific clash of opinion. There may or may not be differences of opinion. In argument there is always a definite clash of opinion. There are always "two sides" to an argument. Debating uses the tools of persuasion and argument in an uninterrupted speech-making contest.

For example: Billy was giving Jack a ride on the handle bars of his new bicycle. At the intersection of two busy streets near their school, a truck collided with the bike. Jack was thrown against the curb and killed instantly. Billy was caught under the wheels of the truck and seriously injured. Many children, on their ways to school, saw the accident. Such *conversations* as this took place:

"Do you think Jack is really killed?" "The man said so. Isn't that too bad? He was such a cute little boy. So bright, too." "Yes,

he had the highest grades of anybody in the fifth grade last semester." "Well, I'd hate to be Billy. Just think, he will get well and have to remember that it was maybe his fault that Jack is dead."

"Did you see the truck stop before the bike hit it?" "Billy ought to have seen it coming before he turned in at the corner." "But it wasn't at the corner yet." "He ought to look before he turns into a street, just like we do before we cross." "Boy, did you see that truck driver reverse?" "Maybe if he hadn't backed up, Billy wouldn't have got caught in the wheels." "Gee, it makes me scared to ride a bike any more."

Eye witnesses were everywhere questioned by others who heard of the accident. In the classrooms afterward, those who saw were *interviewed* by their classmates:

"Where were you when you heard the crash?" "I was on the other side of First Street when I heard Jack yell 'Look out!' I looked just in time to see Jack hit the curb and see the truck start to back, and then I saw Billy's legs turn up by the wheel of the truck." "Did Jack cry or anything?" "I didn't hear anything, but by the time I could think what had happened there was a lot of fuss around and I couldn't think about anything but getting Bill out from that truck. I don't think there was a scream or anything. I was close enough to hear it. After Billy came to, he began to cry and call for his Mother. Then he remembered about Jack and asked if he was all right." "Did they tell him that Jack was dead?" "The man that was driving the truck told him he was all right. I think he thought he was, for it looked as though Billy was worse than he. Then when they took Billy away, some men there told us not to let Billy know Jack was killed, so that he wouldn't worry. He was pretty badly hurt, and I guess they thought he would get better quicker if he didn't know." "Did they take Billy to the hospital?" "I don't know. Somebody got his mother right away and they took them both away in a car." "Well, I think we ought to send some flowers over to Jack's house." "He's dead. We ought to send them to Billy, so he can know we are sorry and want him to get well."

Immediately the group began *discussing* the matter of sending flowers, when, where, to whom, what kind of flowers, how much they would pay for them, how much each would have to contribute, from which florist they should be bought, whether it might not be better to have flowers brought from home gardens, who would deliver them, what the messages should be, etc.

Then children began to consider the cause and the prevention of

such accidents. This *discussion* began with a bit of opinion: "I don't think Billy should have taken Jack on the handle bars." "Jack was big, and Billy couldn't see around him." "Oh, but I saw them coming up the street, and Jack was leaning way over to one side so that Billy could see ahead." "Well, wouldn't that make it harder for him to steer the bike straight?" "Maybe so, but he could see lots better if there wasn't anybody on the handlebars." "Yes, and they might have been talking about something else, and Billy didn't see the truck coming." "It was the truck's fault, because he was coming so fast that Bill couldn't tell he was there until he had put on the brakes to stop." "But the truck was dead still when it hit." "The sun was shining, too, and when Bill would be looking that way, he might have been blinded." "The truck was stopped at least ten feet from the edge of the curb, so he must have stopped pretty still before he got to the yellow stop line in the street." "Yes, and Billy was making a left turn way over on the left side of the street."

Here *argument* started: "No sir, Billy was on the right side of the truck because he got caught in the left front wheel, and his bike was over in the middle of the street." "But I saw him turn into the street, and he was clear over by the left curb. He turned quickly to avoid hitting the truck." "You could tell by the direction the bike was lying in the street that he had hit the front of the truck with the left side of the bike." Each was making a statement of which he was quite sure, because he had evidence to prove that his opinion was correct.

Persuasion began when somebody remarked "A lot of us have bikes. We ought to make a rule not to take other boys on the handlebars." "Oh, I do it all the time, and I never had an accident." "Neither did Billy until today. And I'll bet he wishes he didn't." "It's too late after you've had an accident. If you don't get into the habit of riding folks, it won't ever happen to you." "Just think how you would feel if you were Billy and knew that you had maybe killed your best friend." "Well, if I do ride fellows on my handlebars, I ride on the sidewalk, and not in the street." "And anyway, it's not safe to ride at the corner of First even alone. There's too much traffic there." "We ought to make a rule not to ride in the street at all." "But where can you ride? The sidewalk is for people to walk, and you could have just as bad an accident if you bumped into an old lady or somebody on the sidewalk." "There are lots more accidents in the streets than on the sidewalks." "But if everybody started to ride bikes on the sidewalks there'd be more accidents."

At this point it became evident that there were *debatable* points in their discussion. So it was arranged that two teams from the class should look up material on bicycle accidents at the traffic department and from the Automobile club, get more arguments and reasons why they believe as they did, and debate the question at a later class meeting. The subject as stated was "Resolved that bicycling should be prohibited on the streets."

Original Stories —Talks—Reports

From Sheridan [1] we take a few general suggestions as to method in Oral Composition.

1. Teach a few things thoroughly and give abundant practice in these few fundamental things.

2. Good speech is a matter of habit, and there is no evidence that the study of formal grammar induces children to speak correctly.

3. Children must have a chance to talk, and not have to listen most of the time to the teacher.

4. Socialized recitations give pupils a motive to talk well.

5. Seating must be arranged to allow pupils to see each other's faces, rather than the back of their necks.

6. Since right speech is mainly a matter of the ear, the children should be given opportunity in a natural situation to hear and say the right forms often enough to make them sound right.

7. Language games, with the object to "bombard the pupil's ears with right forms" is an effective device.

8. The "sentence sense" is pertinent, and can best be achieved by the daily use of short, three sentence compositions, with every child having a chance to talk every day.

9. Subjects should be personal and brief, presenting only a single phase of a well known experience.

10. The beginning sentence should give "the heart of the subject" and the ending sentence should leave an active impression of the topic.

In his program for the primary grades, Sheridan gives more specific devices:

Short one, two, and three sentence compositions, stressing free, spontaneous, hearty self-expression.

"Get acquainted" talks, telling things about one's self and interests.

[1] Sheridan, *Speaking and Writing English*. Benj. H. Sanborn.

Talks about pets.

Talks about daily experiences.

Use of correct forms by constant direction and drill by the use of language games.

Drill in distinct speech, with special stress on final consonants.

Improving characteristic weaknesses by avoidance of trite beginnings and endings, as "I have," "I like," etc., by skillful question and criticism.

For work in the intermediate grades, the following are suggested:

"All written work should grow out of oral work, but oral work should receive by far the greater attention.

Four or five sentence compositions.

Children should select a particular phase of their experience and observation and tie up every sentence to that.

There should be much daily criticism.

Compare children's offerings with illustrative compositions.

Occasional stenographic reports of pupil's compositions allows them to observe their own progress.

Reading and answering letters orally gives a "personal" feeling.

Daily use of speech drills and language games.

Discovery and application of expressive words and word values through dictionary reference and critical reading.

Unit sentence and paragraph structure by means of questioning, criticism, and comparison with models.

Insistence upon distinct speech by teaching the pupils to

open their mouths when they speak,
speak slowly in a low, clear, voice,
enunciate final consonants.

Work with upper grades continues all of these methods, with the addition of:

Enlarging the vocabulary and introducing the use of vivid words through dictionary study, comparison with classic compositions, and criticism.

Use of compound and complex sentences by combining simple sentences, or by critical examination and discussion to determine relative values of long and short sentences.

Sentence betterment through transforming, combining, condensing, and otherwise varying sentences to see how to express thoughts more pleasingly and effectively.

Assigned topics for oral report.

Hosic [2] does not go into great detail in the matter of method, but he makes recommendations that include:

Intelligent, eager, long-continued practice under guidance and criticism.

Appeal to strong and effective motives for expression, such as desire to give pleasure to others, to express and support an opinion, and to enjoy for one's self the mastery of an art.

First hand observation and free play of imagination to induce originality of expression.

Facts and principles of language should be taught and used when they are needed for use.

Impromptu reports and discussions.

Retelling of stories after repeated hearings, when the story has been assimilated and made the pupil's own.

Dramatization, worked out by the children.

Memorization of poetry after having discovered the whole thought.

Young and Memmott [3] also recommend the three sentence plan for early composition for these reasons:

Every child has a chance to recite in a period.

Each child can easily tell *three things,* therefore his self-confidence is also being developed.

It is necessary to concentrate upon the point of the story and omit irrelevant and uninteresting details.

The class can concentrate more easily on the particular thing that is being developed.

It makes for sentence consciousness, if the child is taught to let his voice fall after each of the three statements.

From the point of view of the speech teacher, the remark concerning letting the voice fall after each sentence is, perhaps, fallacious. Sheridan subscribes to the same notion.[4] If we are trying to develop spontaneity and are constantly avoiding formal methods of speaking, we must refrain from any suggestion of formality and of mechanical perfection in our teaching. The inflection of every simple sentence does not fall at the end of the sentence. For instance, the voice might fall at the end of "This is a wet day" but hardly at the end of "The paper says rain tomorrow, too." It would be a very monotonous com-

[2] Hosic, *The Elementary Course in English.* Univ. of Chicago Press.
[3] Young and Memmott, *Methods in Elementary English,* 10.
[4] Sheridan, *Speaking and Writing English,* 58.

position whose every thought ended in exactly the same way. And it is a dangerous precedent to teach in the early grades any principle that may have to be overcome later. It might be better to suggest "Let your voice end the sentence (or statement) in the way that ends that idea, or completes that thought, or closes the meaning best."

It is true that one of the most profound problems of the teacher of little children is to correct the tendency to run thoughts together with connectives—words or syllables. Perhaps it would be better to suggest to the child that he pause between his thoughts. One teacher has found the remark "Begin your thought with a capital letter, and end it with a period" to be effective with intermediate grade children who have had experience in writing. It might not be an efficient device for younger children, whose sense of sentence structure is undeveloped from practice.

Conversation

Conversation and discussion are used daily in the elementary classroom. Persuasive speaking and argument are introduced to fill occasional needs in the class and to assist individual children to accomplish purposes that are real to them at any time. Debating is used merely as a motivating device for the use of persuasion and argument, and to set into motion certain interests and techniques that will prepare the students for advanced work in High School.

Consideration of conversation may be approached with two criteria: Is the subject of the conversation of interest to the listeners? and Does the speaker have a rich store of information concerning the topic of the conversation? Criticism of the children's conversation may come from the same considerations.

In the lower school, children may set themselves to discover the personal interests, hobbies, or curiosities of their playmates. For a speech exercise, these bits of information may be used as a basis of very informal conversations. These may take the form of dialogue and be presented extempore before an audience. Or the class may be separated into small groups for free conversation. Children tell of their hobbies, special interests and achievements of their parents, their friends and acquaintances, their pets, travels, and experiences. They exchange opinions of likes and dislikes and preferences. The exchange helps to develop new concepts and exposes the child to a vast fund of factual information which he would not otherwise get except through extensive personal experience and lengthy study.

Discussion

Practically all social recitations in the classroom take the form of discussion. Usually the teacher is the leader of the discussion group. This is as it should be, for her experience and information indicate to her the values in the topic that must be stressed and those more trivial values whose contribution serves the discussion best by being merely "mentioned in passing." Good discussion in any situation does not "just happen." It demands preparation, both as to subject matter and technique of presentation. In most classrooms the discussion takes the form of question-and-answer. Progressive teachers encourage and invite children to discover facts and interesting details about the topic under consideration from sources other than class text-books. This information is contributed to the class at regular recitation times, when questions are asked, additions made, and conclusions drawn on the basis of material presented. Topics related to Social Studies, Language, Science, Nature Study, Art and Music appreciation, an educational movie, Courtesy, Thrift, Safety, etc., and problems of class or school activities represent situations in which discussion may be used successfully.

Topics for successful discussion must be those in which the children have a vital, moving interest. In middle and upper grades, children may choose their discussion leaders, remembering that the discussion must be "kept to the point"; that every participant must be given fair opportunity to contribute worth while suggestions; that pertinent ideas must be weighed and examined in relation to other information known about the problem under discussion; and that summary solutions should be drawn from this review.

One elementary class spends one half hour each week before an improvised microphone "broadcasting" topics of current issue. They learn through the discussion that follows to evaluate news, to connect it with historical backgrounds, and with certain limitations, to predict its outcome. The elements of opinion, persuasion and argument enter into these discussions.

Persuasion

In his youthful community, a child encounters many situations requiring the use of persuasion in order that he may accomplish certain ends toward which he has set his efforts. He wants to make the ball diamond on a certain field and must convince the other boys that this is the best place for it. He wants to sweep sidewalks in winter to earn a bit of pin money, and he needs a sales talk with which to

approach his prospective "customer." He has an idea for improving his class organization and must present it convincingly. He wishes to spend an afternoon in the park and must meet possible parental objection courteously and reasonably. Children should cultivate a clear distinction between bullying, coaxing, and persuasive speaking.

Persuasion functions when one approaches an equal over whom he has no control, or a superior from whom he seeks favors. Many opportunities for exhibiting success in persuasive speaking are offered with such school activities as: sales talks for carnivals, paper sales, school publications, membership in Parent-Teacher or student organizations; "pep" speeches attending contests and special drives; propaganda talks on safety, thrift, courtesy, self-control, care of property, holiday or special week observances.

Argument

As soon as a child has learned how to present speech material, he may learn to present his ideas when there is a clash of opinion. In the very lowest grades, debating can be introduced as simple exchange of clashing opinions about something well known to all the children. Questioning others' opinions, and the urge for argument become an acute problem at about the age of the fifth grade. This is the "psychological moment" to introduce rules for argument and the application of the rudiments of debating.

In argument, a speaker must present *reasons* for his assertion (proposition). Each reason must be supported by direct evidence from authoritative sources. A study of sources is indicated and valuable. The Automobile club is authority on problems involving automobile traffic, but not on matters of city government. The janitor is authority on matters of heat engineering, but not on traffic problems, etc.

A very successful technique for beginning is one in which the teacher takes the negative attitude concerning a subject the class has studied together. The children are on the defensive with information they have learned. This activity serves as an excellent review and integration of the topic. For example, a class has just finished a study of personal cleanliness. The teacher attacks one of the health rules the children have learned and discussed. She might say: "But think of the thousands of years before soap was invented. Cave men and early mankind didn't wash their hands. I shall not accept this rule unless you prove to me that it is not only good, but necessary." The children should point out that in the days of the cave men there were

fewer people, therefore fewer opportunities for germs to be distributed; that there were fewer implements and materials to be handled and distributed from one person to another; that the cave man lived in the open, therefore had more opportunity to combat harmful germs; that the cave man was a stronger individual than present-day individuals, therefore, was not so apt to become infected to the point of danger; that so far as we know, there probably was much illness that might have been prevented if the cave man had used sanitary precautions; that, from the aesthetic point of view, the cave men had not cultivated a taste for cleanliness, etc., etc. The evidence to prove these points would be found in the source of information used in the study of the topic. This suggested technique will be found equally serviceable in problems of Social Studies, Science and Nature Study, Current Event discussions, English grammar and usage, theories of processes and evolution of formulae in mathematics, practices in Home Economics and trade subjects, and many other school situations.

Debating

It is essential that the question for debate is one in which the children can have a genuine interest and understanding, and one with which they have already a working acquaintance. It might be safe to say that no problem should be considered for debating unless it has arisen from a vital difference of opinion among the children themselves. We would go even further and assign no place for debating in the class *as an exercise in itself*, but only as a motivated medium for presenting two sides of a *vital* discussion. Such problems arise every day within the school. Building policies, problems of student government, safety, choice of vocation, topics that have developed from class discussions as mentioned above, etc., offer unlimited sources of debatable problems. Or, debating might be used as practice for real life situations outside of school: courtroom, council meetings, legislature.

Suggestive propositions that have been successfully debated by children include: "Resolved that (certain) woods and surrounding fields (near the school) should be made a public park"; "Resolved that the voters of our city should pass the 3-mill levy" (whereby the school appropriation would not be cut severely); "Resolved that the east stairway should be used exclusively for up-traffic"; "Resolved that both First and Hay Streets should be made stop-streets at their intersection"; "Resolved that the United States should build another airship to replace the Akron"; "Resolved that the United States

should recognize Republics of Soviet Russia" (pertinent at the time of the Russian envoy's visit to President Roosevelt); "Resolved that the school cafeteria should be allowed to serve noon lunches to the public"; etc.

The proposition stated as the topic for debate assumes that some change should be made in a present situation. Children should avoid debating abstract subjects, such as questions of opinion. Their topics should deal with things of the present, never of things that should or might have been done in the past. There should always be a possibility that the change advocated might be made. For example, the traditional "Resolved that Lincoln was a greater man than Washington" will probably never be settled; it doesn't make a vital difference to any of us, and it doesn't offer great opportunity for clash of vital issues.

The aim of children's debating is to help them to think "in a straight line," and to defend their thinking, to support an assertion with authoritative evidence. This is to be done in the best speech form. It is unnecessary to consider rhetorical treatment of arguments or the use of technical terms.

The greatest possible advantage comes from debating with children when, at the occurrence of a vital problem, the whole class analyzes the question and discovers the points upon which there is justifiable clash of opinion (issues) in informal discussion. They suggest sources of evidence, and possible techniques to be used in refuting the proposition. They then choose teams and decide upon the date at which those teams shall clash in "formal" debate before the class as audience. Each member of the class is thus keenly interested in the activity, thoroughly convinced that one side or the other "will win," and helps the teams with suggestions and with searching for evidence.

The affirmative team selects the issues it chooses to defend and plans a simple brief in which are listed the arguments, the evidence supporting each, and the source to be presented as authority. Each member of the team (there may be any number, but two are usually sufficient, and a small number avoids confusion) may even make a speech outline to guide him in the extemporaneous presentation of his material. The affirmative team should examine the possible refutation of the negative, and be prepared with evidence to disprove negative issues.

The negative team anticipates the possible arguments of the affirmative, and decides which of the "stock" methods it will use in opposi-

tion. They may produce negative evidence refuting affirmative statements, proving their opinions false; they may produce evidence that no change is needed, that the present situation is the best possible one; they may produce evidence that with some changes, the present condition can be made to be quite satisfactory; or they admit that some change is necessary, but the proposal advocated by the affirmative is not the right one.

Decisions with children are unavoidable. Debating is a game, and in the best games somebody always wins. It is always helpful to have a number of "critic" judges from the audience, whose decisions with reasons for them are presented at the close of the debate. If there be an uneven number, the majority of decisions indicate the winner. The decision may come from "audience decision" following a caucus in which the issues are reviewed, proof weighed, and a vote taken on the basis of this discussion. If it is possible without giving undue importance to the winning, it is well to have an authoritative critic, perhaps the teacher, who reviews from an unbiased point of view the techniques used and why her decision should be as it is. Decisions are justified, too, because they make the school exercise more nearly like real life situations than would be possible without decisions. Decisions are required in most life situations where debating is used; in elections, trials either by judge or jury, and legislative action.

NEW BOOKS

The Art of Effective Speaking. By HALDOR B. GISLASON. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1934; pp. ix, 492; $2.48.

The Art of Effective Speaking is not just another textbook on public speaking. It is outstanding among the new books on speech-making. It will undoubtedly have a wide appeal; it deserves it. Among the features of the volume which distinguish it from other speech-making textbooks presenting the conventional academic approach are: (1) its wealth of illustrative material; (2) its emphasis upon motivation; (3) the attention given to the different kinds of speech materials, with emphasis upon the significant part which illustrations play in public speaking; (4) an effort to give to logical argument the more modest place which it deserves in effective argumentative speaking; and (5) more attention to psychological factors in speech-making than is generally given in academic textbooks.

It is to be regretted that in the psychological discussions the book does not take advantage of more recent psychological study. This fact will probably prevent the book from receiving the approval of our academic colleagues in the field of psychology. The psychological crowd is discussed in such a manner as to tend to lead some students to feel that there is something mystical about it. For instance, here is a sentence which might give a false impression of the nature of a psychological crowd: "The obvious advantage to the speaker is that while he continues to addres a group, it is essentially a group with one mind, and that a *suggestible* one." (The clause, "it is essentially a group with one mind" is a loose handling of psychological concepts which would probably irritate most psychologists.)

After thus describing the great value of the psychological crowd to the student-speaker and consequently whetting his appetite for information concerning methods of obtaining for himself the aid of this seemingly mysterious force, the author tells the student-speaker in conclusion, "Not all groups convert into a psychological crowd, although many groups may be so converted. Much depends upon the character of the group, and more on the speaker." This is quite true —but of no value to the undergraduate student in attempting to make a psychological crowd. Confusion will result also from the fact that

the psychological crowd is discussed as merely one of several devices to be used by the speaker "to render an audience receptive to his message" and is classified on the same level as the use of humor, group singing, and the use of common ground of feeling. Another statement that would cause many a psychologist to lift an eyebrow is, "The herd instinct in all of us tends to make us do as the group does, so far as we can observe what it does."

The book suffers much less than most of its contemporaries from faults rather common to academic speech textbooks: (1) certain material is included to impress fellow teachers rather than to be of aid to the student; (2) in the author's desire to champion a laudable cause, exaggerations are made which appear to students to be untrue and are therefore ineffective; (3) specific directions are given regarding certain procedures which in the more practical situations of after-school life are impractical; (4) coal is carried to Newcastle with an introductory chapter on the value of speech training.

When I began this review I resolved that it would not contain the altogether too common trait of fault-finding with mere details which are evident in most book reviews. In looking over this review I find, however, that the larger portion of it consists of fault-finding. In reading many of the reviews by other critics I have often attributed their fault-finding to one or more of several causes: (1) indigestion; (2) a desire on the part of the reviewer to convey the impression that he could have done a better job than the author; (3) sour grapes; (4) chronic tactlessness, combined with a lack of tolerance toward different points of view. If you do not agree with the general point of view of this critic you have no doubt already ascribed one or more of the above reasons for his adverse criticisms and have resolved to request a copy of the book for examination. I trust that you will do this. It is a good book; it deserves the good sale which it will no doubt have.

HOWARD HIGGINS, *Miami University*.

Speech Disorders. By SARA M. STINCHFIELD. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1933; pp. 324.

The publisher of *Speech Disorders* should take pride in having brought out in standard printed fashion the first book in English in the field of speech pathology that brings to bear modern points of view and recent information upon the whole field of speech disorders.

Many other authors have treated parts of the field intensively, and a few have treated the entire field with special attention to certain types of disorders and with only passing attention to the rest of the disorders; but in Part I of *Speech Disorders* we have the entire field treated with balanced perspective. This includes 165 pages of the text. Part II is really not closely bound to Part I. Perhaps it should have been printed under separate covers. Being, however, a report of certain "Statistical Studies of the Speech of 3,000 College Women and of Public School Groups," it illuminates the material presented in Part I by presenting considerable factual material on norms by which the significance of the abnormal conditions of speech is made clear.

One outstanding characteristic of *Speech Disorders* is that Dr. Stinchfield has not in her writing surveyed the disorders of speech merely from the point of view of her own opinions, theories, and findings, but has incorporated into the text the views of other authorities. She has been able to do this, moreover, without giving her reader the confused picture that often comes from a shifting of the angle from which the field is viewed.

The book is well worthy of consideration as a text.

ROBERT WEST, *University of Wisconsin.*

Psychological Elements in Speech. By EMIL FRÖSCHELS. Boston: The Expression Company, 1932.

When the student of speech acquaints himself with speech literature he finds volumes of controversy as to the cause and cure of stammering and stuttering and more volumes of exercises for this or that fault of articulation or voice production. As a rule he searches in vain for a scholarly and scientific work on the basis of speech and on aphasia. In this book by Dr. Emil Fröschels of Vienna, we have a volume that should be a Mecca for those students, whether they are interested in the correction of speech defects or in the more artistic phases of the work. The author states in his introduction that "this is the psychology of speech; previous methods of study have treated speech only in its relation to other psychological functions." By studying infant speech he feels that we are afforded an opportunity to study the causes which condition the beginnings of speech, and also that a study of aphasia will help an understanding of normal speech.

Following is the table of contents:

Section I. APHASIA
1. Cortical Sensory Aphasia—Wernicke's Aphasia
2. Subcortical Sensory Aphasia—Complete Word-Deafness
3. The So-Called Transcortical Sensory Aphasia
4. Cortical Motor Aphasia—Broca's Aphasia
5. The Subcortical Motor Aphasia—Complete Dumbness
6. Leitunsaphasie
7. The Minor Forms of Aphasia—"Einzelsunnlichen" Aphasien

Section II. INFANT SPEECH

Section III. FOLK PSYCHOLOGY

Section IV. SPEECH AS A PSYCHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL FUNCTION, by Professor Dr. Ottmar Dittrich
1. Meaning and Speech Sound as a Phylogenetic Function
2. The Sentence and the Word: Speech as an Ontogenetic Function
3. Speech Habit and Speech Use: Speech as a Phylogenetic Function and Its Development Along Successive Planes.

Section V. SPEECH FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF INDIVIDUALISTIC PSYCHOLOGY, By Frau Dr. Ilka Wilheim.

In the section on aphasia we are given a brief summary of the history of localization of function in the human brain, and a final arriving at the relationship of brain lesions and the disturbances of speech. Because of individualistic tendencies Dr. Fröschels finds aphasiacs difficult to classify, but he has covered the field of work done on aphasiacs and adds his own clinical experiences to making such classification as is possible with the available information. One is led to believe that he knows whereof he speaks, despite the fact that he has not cited numerous laboratory experiments. As is always the case with literature on aphasia, we find only the adults who have lost speech dealt with, while there are few, if any, observations of the congenital aphasiac which we know to exist. The subject is sufficiently comprehensive, however, that one who has worked with the child aphasiac can benefit by Dr. Fröschels' studies. He does not give unending pages of therapeutic drills.

The section on infant speech brings to light the places where speech development may falter, and consequently the clinician will have a better understanding of where and how to attack his problems. In this connection we find a refreshingly simple discussion of the origin of stuttering.

The section on folk psychology goes still further into the development of speech and language so that the picture of speech is quite complete. The last two sections, which are written by colleagues of Dr. Fröschels, will be found an interesting wind-up of the study.

MIRIAM E. NORTH, *Central Institute for the Deaf, St. Louis.*

Standard English Speech. By G. E. FUHRKEN. Cambridge: at The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932; pp. viii+121; $1.75.

Dr. Fuhrken subtitles his book "A Compendium of English Phonetics for Foreign Students," but it is more than that. Of primary interest to the phonetician are the author's refreshing comments on several unsettled and generally neglected points in phonetic theory. One of these is a criticism (pp. 40–44, 78–83) of the unsatisfactory and oversimplified rules for length of vowels. On the basis of kymographic records of his own speech, the author attempts to synthesize the factors of vowel length more accurately, and with a correspondingly greater complexity of statement. Such evidence, however factually valid, cannot, of course, be taken as conclusive proof, but at least it points the way toward a more rational treatment of the subject than the cursory and often second-hand discussions found in similar books.

Another important section (pp. 49–53) deals with the mixed vowels of the words *a murder*. Disregarding complications with the *r*'s, which in the author's southern British speech are nonexistent, English phonetics have generally considered the neutral vowel of the indefinite article and the unstressed second vowel of *murder* as substantially equivalent members of the same phoneme. Not so, says Dr. Fuhrken; the neutral vowel of the article is distinct; the two vowels of *murder* belong to the same phoneme, and should so be recorded in transcription. It is thus possible to differentiate in transcription between such words as *formally* and *formerly*, as they are differentiated in southern British pronunciation. The usual identical transcription fails to do justice to the facts and to avoid confusing the foreigner. This point seems well taken; it is doubtless worth considering with reference to our American *r*-less regions.

In raising these theoretical questions, the book is valuable and welcome. By the same token, it is probably of limited usefulness to the foreigner, since it goes more deeply into details of principle than is generally considered wise in an elementary practical handbook. Another doubtful matter is the question of a standard. Doubtless a single standard is the best for the teaching of foreigners, but American readers may well be puzzled about whether the author regards their speech as standard in any way. His references to it (pp. 33, 34, 50, 75) leave one in doubt; perhaps such was his intention.

This, however, is a minor matter, and the American reader should find much useful material in *Standard English Speech*.

C. K. THOMAS, *Cornell University*

Social Reformers. By DONALD O. WAGNER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1934; pp. xvii, 749.

Doubtless the professional economists and political scientists will look askance at this book, as the academic philosophers did at Will Durant's *Story of Philosophy*. But many a hard-pressed teacher of public speaking and coach of debating will welcome it as an addition to his little stock of indispensable handbooks. For here, within the covers of a single volume, are the basic economic, political, and social ideas of Adam Smith, Bentham, Malthus, Ricardo, Paine, Cobbett, Sismondi, Carlyle, Owen, Fourier, Blanc, Kingsley, von Ketteler, Godwin, Proudhon, Spencer, Comte, Mill, Marx, Bernstein, George, Wagner, Webb, Bakunin, Sorel, Lenin, Hobson, Leo XIII, Rocco, Tolstoy, Veblen, Tawney, and Dewey. In each instance the ideas are given in the author's own words, illuminated by a brief biographical and critical study by Dr. Wagner.

Public discussion for many years to come will be concerned with the new social order which, as Dr. Wagner says, "everybody senses . . . . is emerging in America and throughout Christendom and the whole world." To gain a correct perspective, one must be aware that this "new" social order has been emerging for at least 150 years. "Every generation has discovered new structural materials or new uses for old materials; in our own day, the possibilities of construction, and likewise of destruction, have been almost infinitely extended. We must remember, however, that such possibilities have been conditioned by successive generations of architects—of social philosophers—who have obtained popular and sometimes governmental approval of this or that drawing which they have made of the imagined society of the future. The drawings and specifications are diverse: they include not only those of liberalism and 'rugged individualism' but also those of socialism of different styles, utopian and 'scientific,' collectivist and anarchist, communist and Christian.

But all of them, in greater or less degree, are part and parcel of the intellectual heritage of the present day, and consequently, if we would truly understand the latest stage in the emerging social order,

it is as important to have a first-hand knowledge of the classics of modern social thought as to study contemporary statistics or mechanics."

It has been argued that the debate coach, particularly, should have a comprehensive and detailed knowledge of the works of all the men represented in this volume. Such complete knowledge would certainly be a very great advantage, but many are not so fortunate as to possess it. This book has the double advantage of giving sufficient information to fill one's immediate needs and presenting it so well as to encourage further reading.

RAYMOND F. HOWES, *Washington University*

Drama Clubs, Step by Step. By CHARLES F. WELLS. Boston: Walter H. Baker Company, 1933; pp. 151. $1.50.

Mr. Wells has set down a very elementary procedure for the organization of a drama club which provides a helpful guide to communities and high school groups who have the dramatic urge. This book is particularly well adapted for use by high school teachers who have the burden of sponsoring dramatic clubs. It contains many usable and practicable pantomimes for individuals or groups, ideas for programs, and a short list of plays.

The experience Mr. Wells has had as drama specialist of the National Recreation Association of New York City provides valuable material for the chapters on "Organization of Clubs," "Pantomimes," "Informal Drama," and "Charades." The list of plays suggested for various groups is brief, but the plays are well chosen.

DONOVAN RHYNSBURGER, *University of Missouri*

Behavior Aspects of Child Conduct. By ESTHER LORING RICHARDS. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1933; pp. xv, 299. $2.50.

Strangely enough, Miss Richards has nothing to say about speech defects in this book, perhaps because her attention in each specific instance is focused on abnormalities of behavior that seemed to her more basic. Nevertheless she has much to contribute to any teacher's understanding of children from infancy through adolescence. An associate professor of psychiatry in the Johns Hopkins School of Medicine and physician-in-charge of the dispensary of the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic, she has combined the study of theory with

daily contacts with actual children for many years, and has, in consequence, developed a fund of common sense too often lacking among her fellow-workers. It is refreshing to find her berating the psychologists, physicians, bio-chemists, and psychiatrists who offer their own specialties as the ultimate keys to behavior, and concluding dogmatically that "the experiences of life constitute the only tests of total functioning that are at our disposal."

Any teacher who believes that his responsibility to a student extends beyond the imparting of a specified amount of knowledge and the grading of a certain number of examinations will find wise and helpful guidance in this book. R.F.H.

The Elements of Speech, revised. By J. M. O'Neill and A. T. Weaver. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1933; pp. 544; $3.

A notably valuable service has again been rendered to the teachers of speech by the authors of *The Elements of Speech*. This comprehensive textbook has been made more comprehensive, has been put into an order that is more logical, has been clarified at many points, has been brought up to date, and has been made more easy to read and more attractive to the eye.

Not only is this textbook comprehensive—a structure to house the whole speech family; but it has good lines, is well proportioned in general to the needs of each member of the household when limited, as the authors state, so as "to include only matters which are of basic importance."

The original textbook is doubtless well nigh universally familiar to teachers of speech. The number and extent of the revamping is what interests us.

In externals it is a completely new book. There is an attractive new binding in dark red. There is new, large, clear, pleasing type. Quotations are all uniformly and clearly differentiated from the rest of the material. The symbols have been taken out from the outlines that introduce the chapters and from the ensuing discussion. Some may regret this loss of labels, but it improves the appearance of the pages and adds to their dignity. Though there are more pages, and these more easy to read, the book is thinner than the former volume.

Significant changes revealed by the revision of *The Elements of Speech* consist in part of rearrangement of material. There still are six parts, but "The Psychology of Speech" has been moved forward

from fourth to third place, and "Principles of Speech Composition" has been shifted from third to fifth place. The sequence now is: I. "An Introduction to Speech." II. "The Mechanics of Speech." III. "The Psychology of Speech." IV. "Types of Speech." V. "Principles of Speech Composition." VI. "Kinds of Public Speeches."

The major changes of arrangement within the various sections appear in Part II. This Part, in the original text, opened with a chapter on "Mental Processes." This material is now made the opening chapter of Part III, "The Psychology of Speech," and it is called "Emotional and Intellectual Behavior." This shift obviously commends itself on the score of logical arrangement. The chapter on "Pronunciation" now closes Part II, a position which gives the section better continuity than its former place between the chapters on "Vocalization" and "Vocal Quality." Numerous other rearrangements throughout the text improve the discussion but none are so extensive or significant as these.

Two major changes are the introduction of new chapters: "Pronunciation," an entirely new discussion of an old subject, and "Radio Speaking," a subject new to this text. These chapters call for special attention.

Pronunciation is treated most analytically in a chapter written by Dr. C. M. Wise, chairman of the Department of Speech at Louisiana State University, to whom Professors O'Neill and Weaver express their obligation. Dr. Wise interestingly discusses the question of Standard Pronunciation, and accepts the "theory of regional standards of pronunciation for America" along with "most teachers of Speech." He sets up three regional standards, the eastern, southern, and general American, as the major dialects. These dialects are spoken, he says, by thirteen millions of people, twenty-six millions, and ninety millions, respectively; and the areas are definitely marked, except for the mingling of dialects, at the borders. This analysis of pronunciation in the United States furnishes the basis for consideration of the correction of errors. Happily Dr. Wise vigorously expresses the need for improvement of speech, and advocates the International Phonetic Alphabet as an adequate medium. In eight pages he undertakes "to explain vowel and consonant formation in general terms," since, it must be remembered, this book does not pretend to be exhaustive. These eight pages would be baffling to most students lacking individual practice work under the eye of a competent teacher, but there are more elaborate treatments that are still more

baffling. For a presentation so condensed, this discussion is surprisingly intelligible and should prove effective as "a scientific approach to language accuracy."

On the basis of this presentation Dr. Wise, "assuming that the student is speech-conscious to a high degree," goes on to "consider some simple applications of phonetics to the improvement of the three great regional dialects, and to the acquiring of the stage dialect." For each regional dialect, the sound-system is given, followed by a listing and, to some extent, an explanation of errors to be corrected. There are set forth, also, the outstanding characteristics of "Stage Speech," modeled on the South-of-England speech and having many points in common with each of the regional dialects, especially the eastern. Phonetic transcriptions and exercises complete the chapter. There is a transcription for the "General American Speech," one for Southern speech, and one which illustrates "Eastern, British and Stage Speech." The exercises on [æ] and [ɑ], [ɑ] and [ɐ], *r* before consonants, and *r* finally are set up in three columns that show the variations among the three major dialects.

This is a chapter that should substantially promote the cause of the International Phonetic Alphabet. Furthermore, students who would like to take a multiple-standard ideal as license for anything to which they may lay tongue, will find no aid and comfort here. They will, instead, find prods applied in no unmistakable language for the removal of marks of "boorishness," of "carelessness or ignorance." . . . "Painstaking drill" is urged for the eradication of "errors so gross as to belong only to the most illiterate."

Dr. Wise omits discussion or suggestion of method in use of the material of this chapter for the "improvement of the three great regional dialects." Apparently, throughout the great area where "General American" is said to be the dialect of the people, the same sound system and list of errors are to be used as the basis of instruction of all students, those whose homes are in California, Montana, and Indiana, for instance, at least if they are in the schools of their own states. How generally have we accepted such a solution of the problem? Again, just what is a teacher in Wellesley to do with a group containing Hoosiers, Georgians, and girls from the home state? Is each to be tutored in the dialect of her native habitat? If so, how generally is such a program practicable? Besides, the variant local forms are so numerous as to make these regional systems at best only generalizations, and sometimes arbitrary, as Dr. Wise admits. Even the phoneticians, not to mention the run-of-

mine teachers, are still much at odds over these matters. Yet skilled teachers, each in his own way, can doubtless make telling use of the data in this chapter. May the number of such teachers increase.

The one new subject admitted to the pages of this text is "Radio Speaking." Comprehensiveness dictates the addition of this chapter; the policy of restriction to essentials has limited the treatment to nine pages. The brevity of this discussion is made possible by reason of the fact that all the items in it, with one exception—mechanical problems—are dependent for their intelligibility and significance upon theory and method elsewhere developed in the text.

Two general subjects are discussed: basic differentia of radio speaking, and practical implications of these differences. The basic differences that are cited lie: (1) in the psychology of the situation, (2) in the absence of visible speech symbols, (3) in mechanical problems. The very brief discussion of the practical implications of these differences, undertakes nothing except citation of a few adjustments and emphases. In nine lines devoted to "Distinct Enunciation" the student is told that "certain articulate sounds and combinations of sounds, partcularly those involved in voiceless consonants and sibilants, have to be handled with particular delicacy if they are not to be distorted in transmission." The chapters on "The Vocal Mechanism" and on "Pronunciation" supply the instruction by which distinct enunciation may be gained, but why not list these "certain sounds" other than voiceless consonants and sibilants?

Relative to proper timing, the retarding advised by many operators of broadcasting studios is called "a mistaken notion." Why should not such a textbook as this offer similar opposition to operators whose cautions cripple speakers in their use of "vocal variety"? True, changes, even in volume, are approved in this chapter "if they are not too great or too sudden." But what is too great or too sudden? Why not advise the student, in spite of studio cautions, that he will be as dull as many announcers if he does not cultivate rather than repress vocal variety? I wonder if most of us have not had to do just this for students who bring to the support of their wearisome monotony the evidence of what they hear on the air and advice they have had in the studio. For a year I have been combating in one of my students the effects of his experience as announcer at one of the country's powerful stations. He is more than ordinarily competent mentally and vocally, but the studio advice which he quotes to me still apparently justifies in his mind a vocal restraint that makes his speaking a soporific. This book is written for beginning students;

it is addressed to boys and girls nearly all of whom present problems of vocal monotony in varying degrees. I wonder if any warning against variety does not set up an unnecessary and generally embarrassing handicap in our teaching.

Probably the amount of technique in use of body and voice and the order in which it is brought into the beginning course in speech has been a major source of disagreement with the original text. It was and still is the belief of the authors that study of these techniques and practice therein should come first. In their preface they now say that they write primarily for those who hold this same belief. I would disagree heartily with any teacher who might think consequently that he should use this book as a text only if he believes in this sort of beginning. True, it is the logical procedure if one is, with the authors, a behaviorist in psychology. But certainly one may change the order of approach, may omit parts of the text, may supplement its teachings with the essentials of other psychologies if he wishes.

If this book were written for the use only of speech majors, it might provoke less controversy when it places, almost at the beginning, a hundred and forty pages of technical knowledge of body and voice. But what of the large proportion of students who take only a course or two in speech and whose interest is primarily in public speaking? Especially in training such students to use "the great medium through which human co-operation is brought about," many teachers prefer to begin elsewhere than on voice and action. Student interest, they feel, may be sacrificed and consciousness unduly centered on the behavior of their vocal equipment and on bodily action. Some teachers, because of their own mental attitude and their training, may find in following the order of this text that it is difficult for them to get spontaneous, stimulating expression of ideas that are absorbing to the speaker. These teachers will, then, change the order in using this textbook or give their students some other textbook. Even if they do the latter, they can not afford to neglect liberal use of it themselves.

Relative to "Discussion and Debate," there is a definition that is arbitrary and differentiation that does not seem entirely consistent or clear in the chapters on these subjects. "When we distinguish a debate from a discussion, we usually mean by debate a discussion pro and con of a definitely stated and unamendable proposition" (p. 352). "Wherever conclusions are arrived at through the discussion of propositions upon which men differ, we have debating"

(p. 360). But, in "argumentative discussion . . . we are . . . advocating that a certain action be taken. We are asking that this year the club should have a ball game and a clam-bake for its annual outing. We set forth the advantages of this program over those urged for a fishing trip. . . . An argumentative discussion is much like a debate, but it is more informal, . . . " (p. 354). Again, "in a discussion we are talking things over, trying usually to find out what the members think, rather than trying to make them think what we want them to" (p. 353).

The first quotation fits *contest debate,* which is the subject to which the chapter on "Debating" is devoted almost exclusively. This form of argument is anathema to people like Mary Follett, Overstreet, Elliot, exponents of the procedure called *group discussion,* to which the last quotation applies. Contest debating and group discussion are terms that have fairly definite connotations. To use them makes for clearness. But, argument under other conditions varies from the utmost formality to the utmost informality. Just where does debate end and discussion begin? To try to mark the point leads to artificial definition, resulting in confusion rather than in clarification. The procedure of this textbook, however, is to be preferred to a classification (used in another famous and valuable book) which places all argument, including formal or contest debate, in the category of group discussion.

The chapter on "Debate" is packed with practical helpfulness and sound advice, as everyone knows who is familiar with the original text. Just one question, however—does the page on the logical outline in a later chapter supply all that is needed to guide a beginning student of debate in the task of setting down in organized form the essentials of the pre-planned part of his argument?

There is an immensely valuable secton of five chapters covering the "Principles of Speech Composition." Fine as it is, possibly something more should be done to make the speaker-audience relationship a more omnipresent and intriguing factor in the mind of the student. If material appearing earlier in the text, i.e., motivation, could be brought into more practical use by the speaker it would be desirable. To include audience analysis as a part of the outline, or perhaps it should be called speech plan, might be one way of accomplishing this. On the whole, it would seem that teachers who use this textbook must adopt for themselves means for making their students constantly and vividly conscious of the part played by the audience in the speech-making situation. In the opinion of the au-

thors, "the best that any course in speech can do for the student is to acquaint him with the principles upon which he must establish his proficiency and start him on his way in the practical application of those principles." We teachers may give him a poor start, but it will not be the fault of O'Neill and Weaver if we do. The principles are here, up-to-date and authoritative. Assistance, ample in general and invaluable, is given for teaching the practical application of these principles. We are advised to use two-thirds of the time in course for practice work. May we do this with intelligence and resourcefulness enough to make us deserving possessors of a text-book that holds throughout to the highest of standards.

HOWARD S. WOODWARD, *Western Reserve University*

How to Speak English Effectively. By FRANK H. VIZETELLY. New York: Funk & Wagnalls, 1933; pp. xxviii, 240.

Here is a book that every teacher of public speaking should beg, borrow, or steal, if he cannot buy it. The contents of this book were first delivered as lectures to the staff of announcers of the National Broadcasting Company. Mr. Vizetelly pleads for plain, everyday spoken English. He does not think that the English of the stage, or the English of Oxford, is the norm to be accepted by all of us. He says: "Those who have been there tell us that only an Oxford man can understand a man from Oxford, and that neither would want to understand any one else." Some of the chapter headings are "Standards of Speech," "Natural Speech," "Flexibility of Language," "Plain English," "On the Pronunciation of Words," "Don't Gibe the Announcers," etc. The appendix is made up of a Key to Pronunciation and a Glossary.

The book contains much material that the teacher can use. For example, Mr. Vizetelly gives the list of words that the New York City Board of Education sent out to each teacher with instructions how these words should be pronounced. Again, there is a long list of words given as the American pronounces them and as the Englishman pronounces them. The chief thrust of the book is against stilted, affected speech. Such speech, says Mr. Vizetelly, is born of snobbery. "The whole inspiration of this type of speech is not to improve the pronunciation of the words or to make them more pleasing to the ear, *but to impress on the hearer the alleged social or intellectual superiority of the speaker.*"

LIONEL CROCKER, *Denison University*

OLD BOOKS

Practical Elocution. By J. W. SHOEMAKER, A.M. Philadelphia, 1883; pp. 200.

It is generally known that Henry Ward Beecher gave his *Lecture on Oratory* before the National School of Elocution and Oratory in 1877. If the school had never done anything other than provide the way for Beecher's lecture it would have justified its existence. But of course it did much more. One of the things it called forth was a textbook by its president. It is interesting that Fulton and Trueblood used the same title for their book issued in 1893.

The significance of Shoemaker's book is that it bases all of its instruction upon the conversational mode. If a student should take as a thesis the development of the idea of the conversational mode of speaking in the United States, he would find this book of untold value. Mr. Shoemaker said in his preface, "We should study ourselves and seek our examples from that condition where true nature is least modified. This condition we believe to be that of conversation with our intimate friends." Thus, that style of speaking known as the conversational mode, which we teachers of speech hold up as the norm and of which we say Wendell Phillips was the great exponent, has a textbook printed in the last quarter of the nineteenth century pledged to its precept. From the examination papers of 1879-80 of the School of Elocution one finds the following questions. "What relation does conversation sustain to human expression?" "How is it related to public delivery? Discuss models for public address as found in conversation." These seem very modern, do they not?

L. C.

A Practical System of Rhetoric, or the Principles and Rules of Style. By SAMUEL P. NEWMAN. New York: 1831; pp. 311.

This rhetoric had the honor of being a required text at Amherst College in the 1830's, along with the texts of Whately, Campbell and Blair. The book was widely used, as is testified by the fact that in 1836 it was being used at Denison University, then on the frontier.

Who would not like to have written a text-book that by 1842 had passed through its tenth edition, and by 1860 had negotiated sixty editions! In a note to the seventh edition it is said that the text had been published in England.

Samuel P. Newman was a professor of rhetoric in Bowdoin College. Knowing this relationship, it is not at all surprising to find that the old stand-bys, Aristotle, Quintilian, Cicero, Wilson, Blair, Campbell and Whately, and the principles they enunciated, are heavily drawn upon for substantiation and illustration of the principles set forth.

Newman set out to write a text for writers, not for speakers. The consideration given by Blair, Campbell, and Whately to public speaking is lacking here. Of course, many of the principles apply equally well to speaking.

The book treats (1) the philosophy of rhetoric; (2) the cultivation of taste; (3) skill in the use of language; (4) skill in literary criticism; and (5) the formation of a good style. Just the mention of these five divisions suggests the extent of the influence of Blair and Campbell.

The most interesting sections of the book are Parts One and Two. Professor Newman disagrees with Blair's definition of taste:

> The definition here given of taste is also different from that found in Blair's Lecture on Rhetoric, which, as a text book, is in most frequent use. He defines taste to be the power of receiving pleasure or pain from the beauties or deformities of nature and art. The definition which has been given of it in this chapter, makes it of a more discriminating principle. It implies, that the man of taste is able to discern what in nature and art is fitted to excite this feeling of pleasure and pain, while the power of receiving this pleasure is called sensibility. That there is ground for this distinction, is evident from the fact already stated, that some men are highly susceptible of emotions of beauty, who, at the same time, are utterly destitute of good taste.

This paragraph will serve to illustrate Professor Newman's penetrative insight, and his readiness to clash with accepted definitions when they disagree with his. This paragraph will also give an idea of what may be found in the first one hundred pages of the book. The remainder of the book takes on the nature of a handbook of correct usage in the employment of the elements of style.

Professor Newman's illustrations are well chosen. He was not afraid to use his contemporaries to exemplify the principle under consideration. The book was published in 1831 and we find references to Webster's "Bunker Hill Address" (1825) and his address on Adams and Jefferson (1826).

Professor Newman made no such clearcut distinctions as, for example, Whately incorporated in his book. Whately's *energy, elegance* and *perspicuity* as qualities of style have been used time and time again by succeeding rhetoricians. This example may suggest why Newman has been forgotten and Whately remembered.

LIONEL CROCKER, *Denison University*

Ratio Studiorum et Institutiones Scholasticae Societatis Jesu per Germaniam olim vigentes collectae concinnatae dilucidatae a G. M. PACHTLER, S. J. Berlin: A Hofmann & Co., 1887.

A study of Jesuit methods of teaching rhetoric leads almost directly to the *Ratio Studiorum* or Course of Studies adopted by the Society of Jesus in 1599, for this was the authority used in all Jesuit schools throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In *Monumenta Germaniae Paedagogica* are found two volumes by G. M. Pachtler, S. J. entitled *Ratio Studiorum et Institutiones Scholasticae Societatis Jesu*, in which all rules for instruction in the various subjects and for the conduct of the Jesuit schools are stated. The rules for the professor of rhetoric are contained in Vol. II, section XVI, and are listed under eighteen headings.

In the department of rhetoric the aim was "to perfect *eloquentia*," using both *oratoria* and *poetica*, since rhetoric was both a useful and an ornamental subject. Perfection consisted in learning the precepts of speaking, in style, and in erudition. The percepts were to be found everywhere, but when lectures were given, none were to be explained but those of Cicero's books of rhetoric and Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, and, if it seemed best, his *Poetic*. In style Cicero was the model. Erudition was to be obtained from history, customs of the nations, from books, and all instruction.

The course was so planned that specific directions were given for each hour, two hours being devoted to rhetoric in the forenoon and two in the afternoon. Even on vacation days and on the Sabbath, certain rhetorical studies were required. Rhetorical skill was to be taught through *praelectio, repetitio, exercitatio, concertatio*, and *argumentum scribendi*.

Praelectio was the explanation of the rules to be studied or of the selection used as a model of style. The professor went over the material very carefully, interpreting difficult passages and making it easier for the pupil to get just the right idea both of rules and style.

Repetitio was the daily review of the material taught the pre-

ceding day, the Saturday review of the week's work, and the annual review of the preceding year's work, the latter coming at the beginning of each year. This was memory training of rather an intensive kind.

Exercitatio was a written exercise performed under the master's supervision; it was a short composition written by the pupil, in which he put into practice the rules he had learned. Sometimes it was an imitation of some passage of a poet or orator; again it was a description of gardens, temples, etc. Attention was paid to diction and to rhetorical figures. This was written in Greek, Latin, and the vernacular; it was then carefully corrected by the teacher.

Concertatio was quite similar to *exercitatio*, but was oral, and the class as a whole took part, as in a recitation. Sometimes two classes opposed each other and had a contest for honors. Occasionally this recitation was held in public.

When the pupil had to write an oration or theme, the teacher gave him the *argumentum scribendi*, or outline to be used in preparing the speech or composition. This *argumentum* also suggested places where amplification could be employed, suitable figures which might be used, and even possible imitation of the style of "good authors." It was a complete guide for the pupil.

A part of the instruction in rhetoric provided for the acting of a short scene or dialogue by the pupils. This was presented without any elaborate scenery and seems to have been largely an exercise in *actio*, or delivery.

MARY J. SKIDMORE, *University of Illinois.*

NEWS AND NOTES

(Please send items of information for this department directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 49 East 33rd Street, New York City.)

The Nominating Committee elected December 29, 1933, at the convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, reports the following nominations:

President: Arleigh B. Williamson, New York University
First Vice-President: C. M. Wise, Louisiana State University
Second Vice-President: Enid Miller, Nebraska Wesleyan University
Members of the Council: John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania; E. C. Mabie, State University of Iowa; Elizabeth D. McDowell, Teachers College, Columbia University; Robert West, University of Wisconsin.

Resolution proposed for the consideration of the next annual convention:

That Section 1 of Article I of the By-laws be amended to provide that the Nominating Committee shall be elected not later than the second day of the annual convention.

(The purpose of this resolution is to secure the election early enough so that the Committee can hold a meeting before the close of the convention, and so avoid, at least in part, the extreme inconvenience of working out a slate by mail.)

(Signed) Ralph Dennis
J. M. O'Neill
W. M. Parrish
A. T. Weaver
J. A. Winans, Chairman

The Quarter-Century Meeting of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference was held at Atlantic City, Friday and Saturday, April 6 and 7. W. M. Parrish, of the University of Pittsburgh, President of the Conference, was in charge of the arrangement of programs. There were three general sessions held, and sectional meetings on Public Speaking and Debating, in charge of C. A. Fritz, New York University; Voice and Pronunciation, Jane Dorsey Zimmerman, Columbia University; High School, Marty T. McGrath, Brooklyn; Theatre and Dramatic Arts, Arthur Woehl, Hunter College; Interpretation, Vera Sickles, Smith College; and Speech Disorders, Herbert Koepp-Baker, Pennsylvania State College.

The Speech Section of the Ohio College Association met Friday, April 6, at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio. Lionel G. Crocker, of Denison University, substituting on short notice for an absent speaker, gave a paper comparing the sermon techniques of Fosdick and Beecher. William Craig, of Capitol University, spoke on the subject "The New Challenge to the Col-

lege Theatre." The discussion following this paper led to the nomination of a committee authorized to collect information and issue bulletins to Ohio Colleges on plays which have proved suitable for college production. This committee was composed of G. Oscar Russell, of Ohio State University, Chairman; Miss Hortense Moore, of Ohio Wesleyan University; and William Craig. New officers for the coming year are Earl W. Wiley, President, and Bert Emsley, Secretary, both of Ohio State University.

The February meeting of the Washington State Speech Association was noted in this section of the April *Quarterly*, but the program had not been received at the time the journal went to press. It is therefore included in this issue.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON PROGRAM, FEBRUARY 16

Training in Poise as Part of Speech Education

1. Aims and Methods in Teaching Poise—Elvena Miller, Roosevelt High School, Seattle
2. Emotional Training for Poise—Dr. Francis I. Gaw, Director, Child Study Laboratory, Seattle Public Schools
3. Body Training for Poise—A Demonstration by Eva Jorgensohn and pupils of Garfield High School, Seattle

Use of Recording Equipment in the Teaching of Speech

1. Lecture and Demonstration—F. W. Orr, University of Washington
2. Questions and Discussion

Problems in the Teaching of Diction—Round Table Discussion, led by John H. McDowell, Cornish School, Seattle.

FRIDAY EVENING MEETING

Debate as a Means of Speech Training

1. Symposium Debate—A Demonstration
2. Aims and Methods of Symposium Debate—Charles R. Strother, University of Washington
3. Round Table Discussion—To What Extent Should the Methods of the Symposium Influence our Methods of Debating in Public Schools?

The Saturday morning session was a joint meeting with the Northwest Regional Meeting of the National Theatre Conference. Speakers were Fred Blanchard, University of Idaho; Elvena Miller; Floyd Crutchfield, Los Angeles Office of Samuel French and Company; Harold Helvenston, Stanford University; Ottilie Seybolt, University of Oregon, and Maynard Lee Daggy, Washington State College.

The Washington State Speech Association earlier this year organized a section on speech training in the Convention of the Washington Education Association, which also met in Seattle. Two hundred teachers attended the following program:

What Can the Classroom Teacher Do to Help Pupils Improve Their Speech?

1. Teaching Conversation—Miss Bertha King, Seward School, Seattle
2. Logical Organization and the Teaching of Public Speaking—Miss Mary Bixby, Success Business University, Seattle
3. Voice Training for Speech—Laura G. Whitmire, Seattle.

How Can Speech Contests Be Made More Effective Means of Speech Training?

1. Extempore Speaking—Miss Luanda Foote, Broadway High School, Seattle
2. Declamation—J. W. Ladd, Bellevue High School
3. Debating—W. W. Bird, University of Washington.

An Integrated Program of Speech Training—Miss Florence M. Adams, Broadway High School, Seattle.

Officers of the Association for the coming year are as follows: President, Maynard Lee Daggy, Washington State College; Vice-President, Elvena Miller; Recording Secretary, Grace Douglass Leonard, North Central High School, Spokane; Corresponding Secretary, W. E. Adams, Whitworth College; Treasurer, W. W. Bird. Executive Council: Miss Eileen O'Leary, State Normal School, Ellensburg; Dr. Frances I. Gaw; Albert Fox, Everett High School.

Professor Thomas Wood Stevens and Valentine B. Windt will again be in charge of dramatic activities at the University of Michigan Summer Session, for the third successive summer. Special advanced work in stagecraft will be conducted under the supervision of Alexander Wyckoff, and a new costume course will be given by Miss Evelyn Cohen.

The Curry School of Expression will conduct a new summer term this year, the Summer Theatre Term, which will be held at New London, New Hampshire, under the direction of Josephine Etter Holmes. A large barn, with the original old timbers, one hundred years old, is being transformed into a modern workshop for dramatic production and will be equipped with adequate lighting and scenery facilities. Play production and acting will be emphasized during the term. Productions of the Little Theatre Group, the New London Players, will begin at the conclusion of the term, July 14, and sudents will be permitted to remain in New London and assist with the productions. The productions will be six of the following: *Mr. Pim Passes By, Peer Gynt, Enter Madame, March Hares, Miss Lulu Bett, Milestones, The Patsy*, and *Outward Bound*.

FORENSICS

The National University Extension Association has announced the following question for the nation-wide high school debates next year: *Resolved*, That the federal government should adopt the policy of equalizing educational opportunity throughout the nation by means of annual grants to the several states for public elementary and secondary education. Mr. Bower Aly, of the University of Missouri, who was co-editor of the *Handbook* last year, has been designated editor of the 1934-35 handbook, which will be available in September.

On April 13 and 14, George Washington University held the First Annual Conference for Senior High School Students, closely following the plan outlined in "Intercollegiate Convention Debating" by Milton Dickens in the February QUARTERLY JOURNAL. The subject of the Conference at George Washington University was, "Should the United States adopt the essential features of the British system of radio control?" From one to ten representatives from each participating high school were in attendance, together with faculty advisers and observers. The Conference was divided into four sections, each with specific questions to deal with; these sections met on Friday afternoon and reported

to the whole Conference on Saturday morning. Resolutions presented by the sectional meetings were voted upon. The Conference ended with a luncheon at the National Press Club, and an address, "The Problem of Radio Control," by Senator Clarence C. Dill. Professors W. Hayes Yeager, Henry G. Roberts, and Harold F. Harding were in charge of arrangements.

The Reserve Rostrum, of Western Reserve University, has just completed its seventh season of public addresses, its twelfth of forum debates, and its thirty-eighth of intercollegiate debates. The speakers, who are students of the University trained by the Speech Department, under the direction of Howard S. Woodward, are available throughout northern Ohio. They appear before organizations of all types for speeches, debates, informal discussions, and as leaders of group discussions. The questions debated this year were as follows: Resolved, That the essential features of the National Industrial Recovery Act should be made permanent; Resolved, That the powers of the President should be substantially increased as a settled policy; Resolved, That you should be a conscientious objector in the next war; Resolved, That crime detection, prosecution, and punishment should be under federal control; and Resolved, That the British system of control of radio broadcasting should be adopted in the United States. Subjects for speeches and informal discussion included capitalism, child training, how we come by our version of the Bible, socialized medicine, little known facts about insects, Greek sculpture, art of ancient Egypt, international relations, values in the study of the classics, reasons for learning modern languages, and an American student's attitude toward France.

In 1932 the publishers of *American Men of Science* issued a companion volume entitled *Leaders in Education*, containing biographical sketches of about 11,000 "of those in North America who have done the most to advance education, whether by teaching, administration, publication, or research." Speech teachers will be interested to note that the book reveals the names of 84 members of Delta Sigma Rho, honorary forensic fraternity, who are now presidents of universities or colleges, deans or directors of courses, heads of departments, professors, high school principals or superintendents, or connected with educational foundations. A large number of them also hold memberships in such other honor societies as Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, Phi Delta Kappa, Sigma Delta Chi, Sigma Xi, and Coif.

Miami University has established a Student Speakers Bureau, which will send out student speakers, on three weeks warning, on any subject, for any occasion, and before any group. On a number of subjects speakers are available without advance notice. Howard H. Higgins is organizer of the Bureau.

The National University Extension Association, at its January meeting, proposed the following topics for the 1934-1935 debate question: Socialization of medicine, Federal aid in education, and Federal control of industry.

Based upon the Intercollegiate Forum proposed by A. B. Williamson, of New York University, in the QUARTERLY JOURNAL for April, 1933, five forums have been arranged by Pennsylvania State College, under the direction of Joseph F. O'Brien and John H. Frizzell. The question for discussion was, "Should the essential provisions of the National Industrial Recovery Act be made the permanent policy of the United States Government?" The plan calls for four speakers, the first to give the background of the question as a basis for the proposals of the other three speakers, who each advance possible solutions to the problem. Each speaker is then allowed a period for rebuttal, and the faculty

authority sums up the discussion, either with or without a preceding audience discussion. The experience of Pennsylvania State College with this type of discussion program indicates that it can be worked out very successfully, with certain modifications of Professor Williamson's original suggestions in the direction of shortening time limits and defining the position of the faculty authority. In each case where it has been tried, the audience reaction has been very favorable, and the plan may be carried out further, not as a substitute for debate, but rather along with it.

Westminster College, Pennsylvania, staged a pre-seasonal debate tournament this winter, two teams being sent from Baldwin-Wallace College, Geneva College, Grove City College, St. Francis College, and Waynesburg College. The visitors were entertained at dinner Friday evening of the tournament, and two preliminary rounds of debate were then held that evening. Two more were held the next morning, and the semi-finals and finals followed.

The experiment in debating begun by Miss Gladys Borchers at the Wisconsin High School has been continued this year. Nine high schools in Southern Wisconsin met at the Wisconsin High School in Madison for a series of non-decision practice debates. The participating debaters and their coaches then engaged in an open forum discussion of the state debate question: Resolved, That the United States should adopt Great Britain's system of radio control and operation.

Pennsylvania State College has engaged in some forty debates and forums this year, both men's and women's squads competing. Several of the debates were held before high schools, and others before men's organizations and church clubs. There were between forty and fifty students on the two squads.

Allegheny College has adopted a policy of conducting non-decision debates for the future. Freshman debating has been emphasized this year, and a schedule of debates was arranged for the freshman teams.

The University of Oklahoma has joined the growing list of institutions which sponsor a University Forum. All students interested in debating and who make a creditable showing in the annual debate try-outs are eligible for membership. This year forty-nine students were enrolled. The Forum holds a regular meeting on Wednesday evening of each week, and the programs are varied, consisting of debates, informal discussions, and discussions of the Oxford Union type, with heckling permitted. Group sessions are held in which debate material is analyzed and the debaters heard and criticized. A group of rooms in the Student Union Building has been assigned to the Forum.

A radio debate was staged recently between the University of Chicago and Oxford University, utilizing the facilities of the BBC and the NBC. The proposition for debate was, Resolved, That the profit motive should be eliminated. The chairman for the occasion was Professor Percy H. Boynton of the University of Chicago.

Texas chapter of Delta Sigma Rho sponsored the Austin tournament of the Missouri Valley League this year. The meeting was held at the same time as the sixteenth annual League oratorical contest.

DRAMATICS

Student players of Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa, in April made a tour, with two-day and three-day stands, of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, ending with a group of bookings in Chicago and vicinity. Twenty players, under

the direction of Albert Franklin Johnson, carrying their own scenery, lights and wardrobe, made the tour. The repertoire was *Redemption* by Leo Tolstoi, *Mary Tudor* by Victor Hugo, *The Importance of Being Earnest* by Oscar Wilde. Each of these plays was produced on the Cornell campus as a regular project of the Department of Speech and Dramatic Art.

One of the great post-revolutionary plays of the Russian theatre was presented for the first time in America by the Yale University Dramatic Association, early in March. The play was *In the Days of the Turbins*, by Michael Bulgakov, translated by Eugene Lyons, and directed by Halstead Welles. One of the unusual features of the production was the appearance of Miss Blanche Yurka as guest star, in the only feminine role in the play.

An interesting dramatic production recently was that conducted by W. N. Viola at the Pontiac High School, when his players presented a brand-new play, *Addie, or The Private Life of a School Teacher*, in co-operation with the publishing company which wished to test the play for its performance value. Mr. Viola will prepare the prompt-book for the published version of the play.

The annual production of the Boar's Head Dramatic Society at Syracuse University was *The Cherokee Night*, by Lynn Riggs. The performance was preceded by a short talk on "The New American Drama," by Mr. Barrett H. Clark, who was the guest of honor on the occasion. Sawyer Falk was in charge of the performance.

One of the recent dramatic productions at Brooklyn College was that of *The Dybbuk*, directed by Joseph Davidson.

Recent plays at Leland Powers School of the Theatre have included the Junior Class performance of *Twelfth Night*, the Senior Class production of Chekhov's *The Cherry Orchard* and Andreyev's *He Who Gets Slapped*, two Freshman plays—*The Thirteenth Chair*, by Bayard Veiller, and *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*, which was the School's annual play for children. The Junior Class also presented the poetic drama by Edna St. Vincent Millay, *The King's Henchman*.

PERSONALS

Because of unusually heavy registration in Speech for the second semester at the University of Arizona, Miss Eloise Hirt, formerly Associate Director of the Pasadena Community Play-House, has been appointed to a part-time teaching position.

Members of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION will be glad to know that Miss Henrietta Prentiss, of Hunter College, who has been absent for some time due to illness, has returned to her duties as Chairman of the Speech Department. Miss Prentiss was recently President of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

James M. O'Neill, of the University of Michigan, will not teach during the approaching Summer Session. He will move with his family to New England and spend the summer writing.